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Selected papers from the conference on the future of second language teaching include: "Reasons for Shame, Reasons for Pride: Foreign Languages and Democracy in America" (Mary Hatwood Futrell); "Present's Tense but Future's Perfect: A Twenty-First Century Case for Foreign Language" (Alan Garfinkel, Holly Schrank); "Integrating a Foreign Language into the Pre-K through Grade 5 Program: The Baker Model" (Paula K. Strupeck, Ann P. Watson); "FLEX: A Golden Opportunity for Motivating Students for Foreign Language Study" (Aleidine J. Moeller); "Enhancing the Learning of Foreign Languages at the Middle School Level" (Keiko K. Samimy, Elizabeth B. Bernhardt); "Staff Development for the FLES Teacher: Networking to Make It Happen" (Audrey L. Heining-Boynton); "To Articulate or Not To Articulate: Is That the Question?" (O. Lynn Bolton, Diana E. Bartley, Anthony Ciccone, Karen Weiss); "The Practical Alternative: Testing the Reading Comprehension of Large Numbers of Students with a Multiple-Choice Proficiency Test" (Christine M. Campbell); "Global Assessment of Writing Proficiency" (Claus Reschke); "The Roman Empire from Cradle to Graves: Using 'I, Claudius' in the Latin Language or Roman Civilization Course" (Jeffrey L. Buller). Appended materials include the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) proficiency guidelines, the Interagency Language Roundtable language skill level descriptions, and a comparison of government and ACTFL rating scales. (MSE)

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Report of Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

Realizing the Potential of Foreign Language Instruction

Edited by

Gerard L. Ervin

Contributors

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Alan Garfinkel
Holly Schrank
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CENTRAL STATES

CONFERENCE ON THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

THE FRIENDLY CONFERENCE!

Realizing the Potential of Foreign Language Instruction

Selected Papers from the 1990 Central States Conference

Edited by

Gerard L. Ervin

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CENTRAL STATES CONFERENCE ON THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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Preface

The twenty-second annual meeting of the Central States Conference took place in the Twin Cities in cooperation with the Minnesota Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. The theme, "Twin Issues: Defining the Future and Making It Happen," considered the priorities for the next century that have been delineated through ACTFL's initiatives and concentrated on moving ahead in a proactive manner. From these priorities, the Board of Directors of CSC selected three issues of particular interest: foreign language in the elementary school (FLES), teacher training, and advocacy. The subthemes of this year's conference, then, focused on these topics.

Across the nation, there has been great renewed interest in FLES. Foreign language educators are now offering several different FLES models based on recent research and theory, determined not to make the same mistakes that led to the demise of the many FLES programs of the sixties. Among these models is immersion, a dramatic concept that is proving to be extremely successful in many different areas. Sessions, workshops, and panels at CSC-90 discussed new movements in the area of FLES and its promise for the future.

Teacher training remains an area of crucial importance as states mandate foreign language study while implementing more rigorous certification requirements. With increased attention focused on the less commonly taught languages, the profession must look ahead to fill staffing needs. Presenters looked at models of teacher training that concentrate on the less commonly taught languages and at others that call for better articulation and collaboration between secondary schools and colleges and universities.

As we continue to grow in numbers and influence, foreign language professionals will want to be aware of the importance of advocacy and what we can do for ourselves. Several organizations and individuals shared ideas on promoting successful foreign language programs while gaining support for proposed programs of the future.

The CSC-90 annual meeting offered something of interest for every conference participant. As we look at current developments and prepare for the future, we are sure to find new ideas and challenges together, sharing expertise, becoming better informed professionals. We are confident that the annual Central States Conferences provide a forum for doing so.

Diane F. Ging
1990 Program Chair

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Introduction

Gerard L. Ervin
The Ohio State University

At least in the United States, it is probably no exaggeration to say that foreign language instruction has, historically, reached its full potential for very, very few students: the "monolingual American" is almost a redundancy. Worse yet, one could make a credible case to the effect that the experience of "taking a foreign language" leaves the field of foreign language study with more detractors than devotees.

The roots of this failure—and it most certainly *is* a failure of mammoth proportions—are highly complex. They have to do with the traditional isolation of a country protected by two huge oceans; the size of a country that throughout its history has been, in the main, linguistically homogeneous; and the temporary worldwide economic dominance of a country that has enjoyed the blessings of abundant natural resources, a superbly benevolent climate, some accidents of history, and (lest we give ourselves no credit at all) the energy of a young and resourceful population of immigrants to a new world.

But these conditions are changing. Though the oceans are still there, for example, their "protective power" has weakened almost to the point of nonexistence: transoceanic cables, followed by earthbound radio transmissions, followed by satellite relays have brought telephone, radio, print, and television signals from virtually every area of the world into our heartland. Ever-faster ships, followed by propeller-driven planes, followed by jumbo jets and even supersonic transportation have given every American access to any major European, Latin American, African, or Asian city within a matter of hours. And the advent of ballistic missiles carrying nuclear warheads has made it virtually certain that should superpower hostilities break out, the results would be catastrophic even for the "winner."

Like our erstwhile geographic security blanket, our nation's linguistic homogeneity can no longer be taken for granted. Our indigenous as well as

our immigrant non-English-speaking populations are growing both in numbers and assertiveness. Whether this growth is treated as an omen or an opportunity depends largely on one's frame of reference. Even among foreign language teachers there are divergent opinions about appropriate responses, as there are in ethnic populations. For all of us, however, this growth represents a challenge: the consequences of simply ignoring potential linguistic and ethnic rivalries within the borders of a single nation are simply too clear and—if other nations that have faced and failed to deal with this problem are any indication—too tragic to countenance.

Finally, and perhaps most acutely at the time of this writing, the economic dominance of the United States that followed her emergence from World War II began to crumble in the sixties and seventies. By the end of the eighties this dominance was clearly history. The new economic strength of the countries of the Pacific Rim caught us largely unprepared; it is now being debated and scrutinized for both its origins and its implications. The emergence of an economically unified Western Europe in 1992 has sent financial analysts and stockbrokers scrambling to find ways to get a piece of the action. And the momentous political events in Eastern Europe of 1989 and early 1990 will undoubtedly have major economic repercussions around the world as those highly educated, labor-rich, and product-starved countries enter the world's financial mainstream, as they currently seem certain to do.

In the face of these changes, it is fitting—almost extraordinary—that the 1990 Central States Conference selected as its theme "Defining the Future and Making It Happen," from which the title of this volume, *Realizing the Potential of Foreign Language Instruction*, was intentionally derived. In section I, two papers examine the past and the future of foreign language study at the start of a new decade and find compelling reasons for renewed attention and support. Mary Hatwood Futrell's keynote presentation from the 1989 Central States Conference in Nashville sets the tone, reminding us that success in foreign language classes is *and must be* within the grasp of all children, and that to offer them (or expect of them) less than a full measure of achievement is to do them, and our nation, a disservice that we will pay for in the not-so-distant future. Alan Garfinkel and Holly Schrank examine the rationales for foreign language study and find the differences between them to be more interpretive than real; they suggest that there is room for both the

humanist and the pragmatist within our profession, and that neither does well to denigrate the motives of the other.

In section II, we turn from ethical and philosophical considerations of the future of foreign language study to practical issues. Young children are without a doubt the most linguistically talented age group in any population. Thus, it would be hard to deny that for foreign language educators, foreign languages in the elementary school (FLES) and foreign language exploratory courses (FLEX) are, or at least should be, a focus of our future. Paula K. Strupeck and Ann P. Watson describe a successful kindergarten-elementary school French program that has captured the attention of children, teachers, administrators, and parents. Aleidine J. Moeller presents techniques that have been successful in setting up the German component of a FLEX program and that may be adapted to many other languages. Keiko K. Samimy and Elizabeth Bernhardt turn our attention to an experimental program that used counseling-learning techniques to teach Japanese at the middle school level. And Audrey L. Heining-Boynton reports on a systemwide faculty development effort for elementary school teachers of Spanish, many of whom were entering that field for the very first time.

As much as we might agree that the youngest foreign language students are also those who are most likely to succeed in ultimately developing usable fluency, the fact is that for the foreseeable future, the largest population of foreign language students in America will be at the secondary school and college levels. In response to this reality, four papers in section III examine considerations of foreign language teaching and learning for these populations. O. Lynn Bolton, Diana E. Bartley, Anthony Ciccone, and Karen Weiss, representing a team of secondary school and college foreign language educators, examine the response of the State of Wisconsin to a theme that we have heard in the past, and will surely hear more of in the future: articulation between secondary school and college foreign language programs. Christine M. Campbell describes the intricacies of preparing reading-comprehension test items for young adults, sharing the many years of experience of the Defense Language Institute in developing such tests. Claus Reschke urges us to have students write more in our classes, and offers a way for language teachers to assign increased amounts of meaningful written work without overburdening themselves with detailed correction of student compositions. Finally, Jeffrey L. Buller, using the classics as a point of departure, shows a

methodology for combining the study of language and history with the critical analysis of fact-based historical fiction. The results of such a merging can be both challenging and enjoyable to students, who are likely to retain the lessons of the intellectual experience well beyond the time that they might be able to demonstrate control over declensions and conjugations.

Many of the papers in this volume make reference to either the ACTFL/ETS or the ILR proficiency guidelines, or both. Our profession is still divided on the question of whether these, or any, proficiency guidelines can serve a useful purpose. But the extent to which their existence has stimulated foreign language educators during the 1980s to reexamine what we have been and will be doing in our classrooms clearly has won the guidelines a permanent place in the records of our profession. These guidelines have never before been published in their entirety in the Central States Report series, and are therefore included in the appendices to this volume.

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In addition to the coeditors of this volume, Nile D. Vernon (University of Northern Iowa) and Sharon Watts (Omaha [NE] Public Schools), thanks are due the following professionals who read and evaluated the many manuscripts submitted for consideration for inclusion in the 1990 Central States Conference Report: Carolyn Andrade, Cincinnati, Ohio; Leon Book, Southeast Missouri State University, Cape Girardeau, Missouri; Norman Choat, Westside Community Schools, Omaha, Nebraska; Donald Gibbs, Creighton University, Omaha, Nebraska; Marilyn Gordon, Fremont High School, Fremont, Nebraska; Linda Harlow, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio; William Hatfield, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana; Jean Hughes, Superior, Wisconsin; Suzanne Jebe, Minnesota Dept. of Education, St. Paul, Minnesota; Jan Lund, Ralston High School, Omaha, Nebraska; Kathy Mellor, Wichita Public Schools, Wichita, Kansas; Patrick Raven, Waukesha School District, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; and Virginia Senor, Cleveland Heights, Ohio.

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Reasons for Shame, Reasons for Pride: Foreign Languages and Democracy in America

Mary Hatwood Futrell
National Education Association

By way of introduction, let me say that it is as much a pleasure to address this group as it is an embarrassment to admit before you that I know only one language. During my many visits abroad, to Israel and the Soviet Union, to China and Japan, and to most of Western Europe, I have always felt a sense of inadequacy as I've watched the dignitaries and officials of other nations converse in two, three, or sometimes even four languages while my other American colleagues and I have needed the assistance of a translator to understand every word uttered in another language.

These experiences, hardly pleasant, have led me to reflect on the fact that there was a time, not terribly long ago, when foreign language study in the United States—at both the secondary school and university levels—required no defense, no explanation, and no rationale.

At one time it was a pedagogical given—an axiomatic foundation of the philosophy of education—that the phrase "Educated Monoglot" was a prime example of an oxymoron, and belonged in the same category with phrases like "jumbo shrimp, airline cuisine, congressional ethics, peacekeeping missiles, and winnable nuclear wars." The understanding that prevailed, in other words, was that the terms *educated* and *monolingual* could not be conjoined without creating a contradiction.

At that time—a time that now seems so distant—foreign languages were seen not as frills, nor as the preserve of dilettantes and intellectual

elitists, but as the proper and necessary possession of any student whose education extended beyond the eighth grade. In 1893, for example, the NEA's Committee of Ten, under the leadership of Harvard president Charles W. Eliot, took the position that the secondary school curriculum must include the study of Latin, German, and French. I remind you that the Committee of Ten sought to specify a curriculum for *all* students. At the time the report was issued, the very questionable practice we now term "tracking" had not yet come into being.

How Did We Get Here?

But then was then, now is now, and now is different from then. What happened? It is this question that I will address—and attempt to answer—this afternoon. My remarks will be somewhat speculative. I do not claim that my analysis will explain in full or with finality the decline in foreign language proficiency among U.S. students. I claim only that the developments I will emphasize have *contributed* to this decline, and that, as contributing factors, they have received inadequate attention.

Democratization

The first development that deserves serious attention is the *democratization of American education*. This democratization—the slow and often painful process by which we came to embrace the ideal that access to educational opportunity at every level is a fundamental civil right—might be viewed as a continuum. We might, in other words, contend that our national history is the history of a steady movement toward inclusiveness, a history of opening the classroom door wider and wider until all youngsters acquired access to full educational opportunity.

This view, unfortunately, is at odds with historical reality. The more accurate view is that the democratization of American education came about through a series of fits and starts. Abrupt breakthroughs, not continuity, are responsible for the triumph of the ideal of equality of opportunity.

Two developments—both of which occurred during my lifetime—lend credence to this theory. First, after World War II, the G.I. Bill opened

our nation's colleges and universities to thousands of veterans who would not otherwise have been able to attend. Second, the 1954 Supreme Court decision in *Brown* vs. *the Board of Education* began the process by which first blacks, and then other minorities, became part of the K–12 educational system that had previously been reserved for the white majority. These two developments signaled, or so it seemed, the beginning of the end for elitism in American education. The educational opportunities that had first existed only for the few, then for the many, were now, at least in theory, available to all.

At this point we stood at the edge of what could have become the Golden Age of American education. I want to give this point special emphasis precisely because it differentiates my analysis from that of Allan Bloom. My view, in stark contrast to Bloom's, is that the emergence of a more egalitarian educational system did not signal the end of a golden age. It signaled not the closing of the American mind, but the opening of America's eyes.

Lowered Standards

With eyes wide open to the power inherent in pluralism, America could fuse Athenian ideals with Jeffersonian ideals—an *active commitment to excellence* and an *active commitment to equity*. We could now give life to the wise words Alfred B. Smith spoke in 1933—words that Allan Bloom, of course, sternly rejects. Said Smith: "All the ills of Democracy can be cured by more Democracy." That was the promise before us, the promise of democracy cleansed and healed and ennobled by more democracy.

But the promise remained unfulfilled. For the social progress toward inclusiveness—this glorious development—soon gave birth to another development, one that we usually designate with the phrases "dilution of academic standards" and the "dumbing down of the curriculum." In brief, the educational establishment—faced with an influx of students who were viewed as not worthy and not capable of mastering the traditional curriculum—became the victim of its own self-fulfilling prophecy. Standards were diluted, expectations lowered, and curricula emptied of the most demanding academic material—all in the name of making our schools more democratic. Science, mathematics, classical

languages—and eventually *all* foreign languages—were defined as too demanding for the masses.

Under these conditions, the tough curriculum that had once been the core curriculum, that is, the common school curriculum, became less and less common. In fact, it nearly became extinct. And foreign languages were among the first casualties.

Some may ask what really happened here. I submit that *covert elitism* had come to guide U.S. education policy. Stated more bluntly, the policy makers who ruled education decided—despite the absence of evidence that would support their decision—that "education for all" demanded "mediocrity for all." Stated even more bluntly, policy makers decided that equity in education could not possibly be compatible with excellence in education.

Was discrimination a factor in this policy making? If we are honest, the answer is yes. Was ethnocentrism a factor? Again, the honest answer is yes.

My contention, then, is that the presumed incompatibility of equity and excellence proved a decisive factor in the dilution of standards that pushed foreign languages to the margins of the standard curriculum. At times, and in many places, foreign languages were not just confined to the margins—they were pushed off the page entirely!

National Superiority

This unfortunate development was compounded by what can only be termed the arrogance of power. There were those who believed that a nation that had attained economic and military superiority unrivaled in all of human history could not be expected to stoop to the level of learning the languages of nations that were, by comparison, midgets.

These two developments—the covert retreat from egalitarian ideals and the national apathy that so often accompanies a sense of national superiority—combined to produce what would in time be termed "A Nation at Risk."

Teachers, of course, would—as usual—be blamed for this national crisis. But let the record show that teachers had no voice in the educational policy decisions that created this crisis. Nor did teachers create the climate that bred national complacency. Let me assure you, as a K–12 teacher and

as a black woman, that I have fought during my entire career for tougher, more demanding standards for all students. Let me also add, to inject a very personal note, that I resent—*I am insulted by*—the idea that blacks and Hispanics cannot meet the most exacting academic standards, cannot master physics or chemistry or ancient Greek or modern Chinese.

I was raised to believe that race and gender, peer pressure, and yes, even poverty, are no excuse for failing to achieve in school. My teachers—and my mother was my first and best teacher—would not accept my background as an excuse. And when I began teaching, in an all-black school incidentally, I excused no one from the demand for excellence. Today, I think my teachers are being vindicated. For we as a people have been forced—by new economic realities and by a massive reshaping of the worldwide geopolitical landscape—to admit at long last that we need the contribution of *every* American child. We are becoming aware that every American student must reach full potential, and that instead of softening curricular content, we must toughen our national will and toughen academic expectations for all students, regardless of race, ethnicity, or socioeconomic status.

The call for a resurgence of foreign language studies is one result of this new attitude. This call now comes from the highest sources—from the National Governors' Association, from presidential commissions, from the CEOs of Fortune 500 corporations. The result is that we now see, belatedly and somewhat sluggishly, movement toward the true democratization of American education. We got nowhere when that ideal was a moral imperative. We see progress now precisely because what was a *moral* imperative has become an *economic* imperative. A trickle-down effect, to invoke an old phrase, has now come into play. The economic imperative for a work force that can carry us through the twenty-first century has created an imperative for global understanding that in turn has created an imperative for foreign language proficiency. In brief, economic adversity has taught us that the study of foreign languages is not an aristocratic luxury, but rather a democratic necessity.

This understanding is still in its infancy. But I would expect its movement through childhood and adolescence to full adulthood to be swift. The demands of life within the global village—within our shrunken world—will, in short order, propel foreign languages to a central place, not only within university curricula, but indeed within K–12 curricula.

Pragmatism

Is this a rosy picture? In some ways, surely. That's why I want to qualify it immediately. For example, if we elevate foreign languages to a new prominence only because of the economic challenge America now confronts, if we view foreign languages primarily or even solely as weapons in an economic war that has reached crisis proportions, then we face the very real danger that when the crisis passes, so too will the day in the sun for foreign languages.

That has happened before. The 1957 National Defense Education Act, passed by Congress in response to the launch of Sputnik, diverted massive funds to the cause of improving and expanding math and science as well as foreign language instruction. But as soon as America's own space program got off the ground, so to speak, the funds dried up and interest in foreign languages diminished.

A very similar sequence followed the Arab oil embargo in the early 1970s. A surge of interest in foreign languages swept the nation and made its impact felt throughout the educational community. How quickly that surge subsided! Between 1970 and 1985, the number of bachelor's degrees in foreign languages declined by 53 percent. We do not need a repetition of this scenario. And yet, repetition appears likely.

Perhaps we can understand why we may expect this repetition if we examine the discourse on education reform: Today we are told with increasing regularity that knowledge is a commodity, education an industry, learning an asset, research an enterprise. We are told in effect that the business of education is business. And personally, I don't feel that any philosophy so deeply rooted in the thinking of Calvin Coolidge will serve us well. For us, as educators, to take our bearings from Calvin Coolidge strikes me as comparable to taking lessons on the public responsibility of elected officials from Richard Nixon, or defending collective bargaining by appealing to the wisdom of Frank Lorenzo. In short, I do not believe our national self-interest will be well served, nor do I believe renewed interest in foreign languages can be sustained, as long as we take it as a given that the purpose of education is to ensure that Fords and Chryslers outsell Toyotas and Nissans.

There is, of course, no denying that the business community and the educational community must work together more closely and more cooperatively. But when the language of commerce so thoroughly satu-

rates discourse on education, we must ask, "What gives?" Is a mercantile mentality compatible with the traditional mission of the academy? Can curricula that uphold the highest standards of excellence be forged on the assumption that education is first and foremost a weapon that will help us defeat the Japanese economically and match the Soviets militarily? I, for one, have my doubts.

Suggestions for the Future

What, then, *will* ensure that foreign languages retain the esteem they are once again acquiring, and what will ensure that this esteem proves to be more than a fad? My answer is twofold.

Seize the Moment

First, I believe we can learn something from E. D. Hirsch—something that takes us beyond the basics of trivial pursuit. Hirsch has observed that

> Today, more than in any earlier time in our history, purely utilitarian aims happen to coincide with the highest humanistic and civic purposes of schooling—purposes such as promoting a more just and harmonious society, creating an informed citizenry, and teaching our children to appreciate the worlds of nature, culture, and history.

The conclusion I draw from Hirsch's insight is that language educators in particular, and the educational community in general, must take advantage of the window of opportunity that economic adversity has opened. My suggestion, in other words, is that we have nothing to lament if, for a time, foreign languages attain prestige solely because of their instrumental value. If foreign language study can help America regain its competitive edge in the international marketplace and thereby solidify our national security, that's all to the good. And no one need apologize. The pragmatic tradition in American philosophy—and in American education—is an honorable tradition. At the same time, it must be said that the pragmatic tradition has never been able to ensure *permanent* support for the primacy of foreign language study.

Lasting Need

That thought leads to the second part of my answer to the question of how to give real permanence to the rising interest in foreign languages: The economic crisis responsible for this rising interest may well pass. What will *not* pass is the need for global understanding. It follows that it is on these grounds—on the basis of the fact that our shrunken world will continue to shrink, and that understanding our neighbors within the global community will become even more necessary—that we must make the case for the importance of foreign language study at every educational level. For the sake of the children of America—these children who will find that they are not only citizens of the United States, but also citizens of the world—we have a responsibility to commit ourselves to this cause.

The Role of Foreign Language Teachers

Let me now be more specific. If we are to meet the needs of tomorrow's adults, then we must recognize—and act on the recognition—that all aspiring teachers must have the ability to prepare students for the world of tomorrow, the world emerging today. This is a world in which their competitors, their colleagues, and their brothers and sisters who must help bring harmony to a world that for too long has known only discord will live not only in New York and California and Tennessee, but also in Zurich and Paris, in Tokyo and Nairobi, in Beijing and Moscow. And if future teachers are to have what it takes to prepare students for this new world, I know of nothing that can help them more than the cross-cultural understanding that comes from studying foreign languages.

What I am hinting at here is that the future of global studies and of foreign language studies may depend decisively on restructuring teacher preparation programs. I will not elaborate on this suggestion because, frankly, I am still thinking through this issue. Let me add only that I think this issue deserves the concentrated attention of foreign language teachers.

The Global Village

At the same time, I know that focusing on foreign languages as a prerequisite for the economic and social demands of tomorrow still defines foreign languages as *instrumental* values, and not at all as *intrinsic*

values. I will try, therefore, in the remainder of my remarks, to remedy this defect in my presentation. I'll begin by sharing with you the observation of Delwin A. Roy, president of the Hitachi Foundation. Roy notes that our rhetoric about global understanding has not been matched by deeds. He then asks why this is so—and answers his own question.

> Much of the failure lies in the negative way the challenge has been posed. We have been enjoined to adopt new attitudes, but primarily as a way to defend ourselves from foreign competitors—economic, political, or military. This is the rhetoric of fear; these are scare tactics. Such rhetoric does not truthfully portray what's wrong, what we must do, and why. The real challenge is to be the most constructive world power we can be.

Let me build on Roy's valuable commentary. I submit that our present attitudes toward peace and national security are the residue of attitudes that may have been appropriate in the era prior to World War II. They are not, however, appropriate today. Rather, today we must understand that national security is inseparable from international security, that no nation can be free of fear as long as one nation is engulfed by fear, that no part of our planet will know peace until every part of our planet knows peace.

That is why our national interest need not blind us to the common interests we share with all nations and all peoples. Those interests can become inseparable if we remember our kinship with all peoples and cultures, if we seek peace within the human family, and if we dedicate ourselves to the kind of peace President Kennedy described: "Peace that enables men and nations to grow and to hope and build a better life for their children; not merely peace for Americans, but peace for all men and women; not merely peace in our time, but peace for all time." The prerequisite for global peace is global understanding, global understanding that arises not from fear, but from hope, not from a spirit of competition, but from a sense of opportunity, and from a sense of kinship with other peoples that the study of foreign languages does so much to promote.

The global understanding that will move us beyond fear and beyond belligerence demands an education that recognizes a principle higher than the profit motive and nobler than economic conquest. True global understanding demands a global education that drives home the message—to again borrow President Kennedy's words—"that in the final analysis our

most basic link is that we all inhabit this planet. We all breathe the same air. We all cherish our children's future. And we are all mortal."

Conclusion

The advocates of an educational system that gives these principles equal footing with economic imperatives need not apologize to anyone. If we wish to prepare our young people—not merely for acquisitiveness, but for inquisitiveness, not merely for competition but for collaboration—these principles deserve a place as the centerpiece of every curriculum in every school in every district in our nation. And I appeal to you, to the conferees gathered here, and to your colleagues throughout the nation, to help move America toward this goal.

The day that goal becomes a reality will be a day to be welcomed. For on that day we will have demonstrated the compatibility of excellence and equity, and in so doing, we will have moved America not toward dominance, but toward prominence, prominence as a nation that solidified its security by giving its children the gift of understanding other children. That's a day when pride will be justified—a day when we will be able to say that we had the courage to so thoroughly transform learning that we secured for our children safe passage through the twilight of this often dark century. It will be a day we will be able to say that America learned to trust democracy and to cherish pluralism, not just within our society but throughout the world. It will be a day when we—*we, the people*—gave life to a principle that I believe can and must guide every educator: the principle that "We do not inherit the world from our ancestors—we borrow the world from our children."

Thank you—and peace.

2
Present's Tense but Future's Perfect: A Twenty-First Century Case for Foreign Language

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In a recent *Modern Language Journal* editorial, widely known linguist Sol Saporta (1989) decries a change he has perceived in the rationale for foreign language study. He complains that recent examinations of rationale emphasize employment and marketability at the expense of humanistic goals. Saporta's observation is, in many respects, accurate: marketability *has* been heavily emphasized, and there *has* been a trend toward a "communicative" rationale and away from the "model for the examination of human knowledge and creativity" Saporta says we have abandoned.

Evidently Saporta sees these two views of the rationale for language study as mutually exclusive, or at least as separate and competing. His editorial leads us to believe that we must choose between the false idol of profit ("false" because it is not often a given person's road to financial security) and the true, if impecunious, goal of aesthetic and ethical principles. But such a choice is not obligatory. There is more than one way to look at the rationale for language study in the United States and, as long as all these ways are seen together, none of them needs to be viewed as violating aesthetic principle and thus be excluded from schools of humanities. Let us proceed by examining two kinds of rationale for

foreign language study, discussing their respective shortcomings, and showing how a humanistic approach brings the two together to make a new approach.

Traditional Rationale

The study of foreign languages has traditionally been justified in humanistic terms, i.e., in nonvocational terms that are ostensibly unrelated to any specific application. "Study a foreign language," one might be told, "and be a higher-quality human being for it." It has been asserted, for example, that vocabulary will improve, that students will develop increased sensitivity to structure in their native language, that measures of preparedness for further liberal arts education will improve, that a sense of success will ensue, that abilities to think critically will develop, that sensitivity to the traditions of the home and foreign cultures will increase, and finally, that a model for the examination of human knowledge and creativity will be established. These are all highly estimable reasons for language study and, to some degree, there is external support available for each (Cooper, 1985, pp. 125–31; Garfinkel and Tabor, 1990). Still, exclusive dependence on a traditional rationale alone displays shortcomings that leave students asking for further justification and teachers with little to say.

Defenders of the traditional rationale for language study are quick to attack proponents of other rationales on the basis, for example, that some of the latter promise nonexistent employment. But is it not equally unethical to promise complete enrichment as an enlightened human being simply because one has taken a given number of courses? Just as proponents of a vocational rationale must know that there aren't jobs for every language course enrollee, proponents of a traditional rationale must recognize that students derive benefits from courses in accord with the degree to which they invest time and effort in them. Students invest that time and effort in accord with the degree to which they see the connection between the course and their own lives and cultures. Sometimes students see connections in terms of jobs, the economic survival of our nation, doing business with people of other cultures, and immediate needs such as those faced by older learners whose job situations can leave them with a sudden need for linguistic proficiency. These are rationales based on the marketplace.

Economic Rationales

The definition of marketplace used in this paper goes beyond that of enrollments and job placements to which Saporta referred, and focuses on examples that provide a broader, or macroeconomic, view of an individual's world. There are few among us who feel comfortable promising that one should study a foreign language (or anything else, for that matter) because it will lead to a job. There are, however, other highly valuable macroeconomic marketplace reasons for foreign language study, connected with the balance of international trade, improvement of local economies, global awareness, and national security.

Trade

The macroeconomic concern that probably has been most widely discussed is the need for *balanced international trade* (BOTB, 1979; Ryan, 1985; Spencer, 1987). Non-English-speaking countries seem to have always understood that the best language is the language of one's client (Simon, 1987), and have geared their choice of language not just to local preference but also to the mutual best interests of firm and client. The English-speaking countries (i.e., UK, USA) have finally begun to associate a negative balance of trade with the foreign language capacity of their populace (BOTB, 1979; Simon, 1988). Unfortunately, Americans have not always accepted the essential link between language knowledge and foreign economic policy (Dunnett, 1983). The link is becoming more widely recognized today (Tonkin, 1988), but is perhaps not yet well enough accepted. Foreign language enrollments, for example, are not yet adequate to support the needs for government personnel trained in languages (Walker, 1988). While it is unfortunate that it appears to take an economic crisis to bring recognition of the importance of foreign languages, such a crisis may be an advantage to foreign language educators: our constituents may perhaps relate more readily to newer economic rationales than to the traditional humanistic rationale.

In a narrow sense, foreign languages are easily linked to international trade because communication skills and cultural understanding are essential facilitators of the day-to-day business of buying and selling goods across cultural lines. Every businessperson in local communities can relate to this explanation. While it may seem unacceptable to scholars of

literature to utilize one's language skills to sell Coca-Cola to people in an African land who are willing to buy it, it is probably no more liberating to try to communicate the depth and sensitivity of literature to those who are thirsty. The buying and selling of goods between cultures leads to exposure and development of mutual trust, and may well be an essential *prerequisite* to the sharing and accepting of ideas such as those we find in the great literatures of the world. Teaching about the ideas and literatures of other cultures is an activity not unlike buying and selling. Teachers, like businesses, must find ways to relate learning to the needs of the student buyer.

Global Awareness

A second macroeconomic variable of interest is that of *global awareness*. Global awareness on the part of individuals accumulates to ensure the maintenance of the sources of such awareness. A foreign language is valuable not only for its literature, but also because it plays such an essential role as a tool of communication among strangers, friends and acquaintances, family, colleagues, and governments. Global awareness is the attitude that will ultimately ensure open attitudes of individuals to other peoples, their cultures, and the ideas presented in their literatures.

Security

Yet another rationale is *national security*. In a sense, the need for national security is one result of lack of global awareness and of limited communication skills between cultures. In an ideal situation, everyone would be humanistically educated and fully communicative; but the world is not ideal. Few people would disagree that foreign language proficiency is essential to preserve a nation's security. Yet, the U.S. diplomatic and military services must spend tens of millions of dollars annually to train personnel to an adequate level of cultural and language proficiency (Walker, 1988), because too few enter these services with the necessary linguistic skills from their educational experiences. Clearly, a nation's most basic needs and promises are compromised if its populace does not recognize the importance of foreign language instruction for practical matters.

Development

Local economic development is a fourth powerful market-based reason for foreign languages. Across the country, communities are faced with a variety of eco[illegible]difficulties that threaten their long-term survival as act[illegible]c centers. (The decline of downtown areas, for exam[illegible]concern that the National Trust for Historic Preservation has mounted the nationwide Main Street Program to promote economic revitalization.) Many communities are vying for new industry, and most states have sent delegations to other countries to attract industry. The success of these efforts is based on many factors, but three are especially important to this discussion: quality of life, investment in human resources, and the attitude of the community toward foreign peoples.

It seems rather obvious that one key resource that a community may have for meeting these three qualifications—and thereby attracting foreign investment—is the quality of its foreign language instruction. The extent of such instruction is also a key to the attitudes of the community, and is one measure of its quality of life and schools.

Available language instruction in the language of the potential client foreign company may well be a deciding factor for location of a foreign business,[2] and certainly would enhance the skills and cultural knowledge of local residents who might be employed by such companies. An enriched and high-quality local school program would surely rank high on the list of variables considered by companies selecting locations: high-quality school programs translate into stronger employees, which can be a powerful incentive for relocating businesses. This suggests that communities looking for new industry to bolster their economic base must consider local schools as a part of the infrastructure just as they consider their water supplies, sewers, and roads.

Clearly, there are other compelling reasons for study of a foreign language beyond the humanistic reasons Saporta presents and beyond employment for students of foreign languages. *These* are reasons that should be communicated to our constituents. Instead of focusing on the narrower, *micro*economic reasons for study of a language (such as jobs), foreign language professionals would be well served to focus on *macro*economic reasons such as security, local economic development, interna-

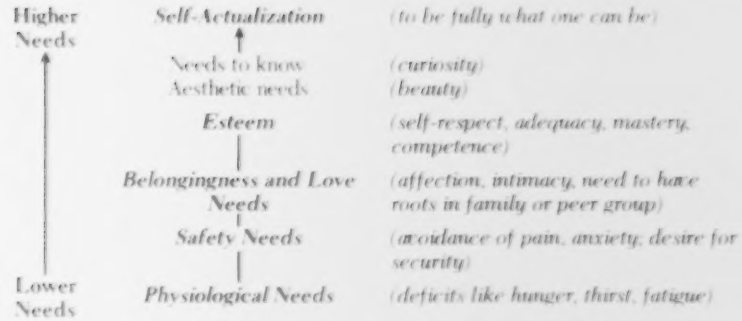
tional trade, and global awareness. These are reasons that are readily understood by students, parents, and businesspeople.

A Broader Humanism

What are the shortcomings of a market-based macroeconomic line of thinking? Certainly, writers such as Saporta would condemn it as anti-humanistic. But is it not humanistic to live effectively in an international world? Is it not humanistic to satisfy one's needs through some sort of line of trade in order to obtain the resources needed to satisfy one's aesthetic and cultural needs? Is it not humanistic to be the best person one can be on every front of life? Saporta might conclude that international trade, global awareness, economic development, and national security exclude and ignore the aesthetic and liberal reasons for study—the exploration of culture through books. That conclusion can, however, be disputed. In fact, enrollment figures and job placements may well be a reliable barometer of Cervantes's worth. Without them, human beings would not have the resources to ensure for themselves and their children the privilege of studying Cervantes. We conclude, then, that these seemingly disparate aims, humanism and a market-based economic health, are not mutually exclusive; rather, they are in fact mutually supportive.

The key to linking the concerns of the humanist and the rationales of the marketplace can be found in the literature of psychology. The pioneer of humanism among psychologists is Abraham Maslow, whose "hierarchy of human needs"[3] serves as a basis upon which the essential relationships between the humanist and those of the market can be understood. In fact, examination of Maslow's hierarchy of human needs demonstrates how clearly the market-based aims of macroeconomics form the very foundation upon which foreign language humanists must build in order to achieve their aims.

Maslow is a personality theorist and humanistic psychologist. At a seminar at Brandeis University he once compared himself to Cervantes's Don Quixote, always pursuing the more humane but less attainable goal. His comparison depicts his fight for the recognition of humanistic psychology as a discipline of equal worth to those of the behaviorist and Freudian branches of the American Psychological Association. Maslow "saw himself as a quixotic figure tilting at the windmills of establishment" (Monte, 1980, p. 557).



Source: Adapted from Christopher F. Monte, *Beneath the Mask: An Introduction to Theories of Personality*, 2nd ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1980.

Figure 2-1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs

It is certainly not difficult to identify with Maslow if one thinks of various positions currently taken by organizations of foreign language professionals. The profession of foreign languages is confronting the seeming contradiction between humanism and the more practical reasons for foreign language study. Maslow would contend that the profession is better off for tilting at the windmills of the establishment. "The fact is that he is in a certain sense stronger, you might say, because he sees how absurd all these self-important blocks are, all puffed up with pride and solidity" (Monte, 1980, p. 558). Similarly, perhaps it is also good that foreign language professionals with a practical orientation, and those with humanistic aims, must sometimes tilt at their windmills.

As a prominent humanist, Maslow's words are worthy of respect from the humanists among us. His development of a conceptual hierarchy that organizes and describes the basic and more advanced needs of human beings is a major contribution to humanist psychology. This hierarchy is based on an ultimate goal of self-actualization, i.e., the striving of each individual first to satisfy more basic needs and ultimately to satisfy "needs to know" and aesthetic needs (see figure 2-1). This hierarchy might well be used to describe the basic and more advanced needs of the foreign language field as well, for it demonstrates a key for assuring the importance and survival of the foreign language profession as well into the twenty-first century.

How can Maslow's hierarchy apply to the foreign language field? The answer might well look something like figure 2-2, in which the carefully arranged monoliths represent Maslow's hierarchy. We suggest that figure 2-2 represents the "monumental" job that can be done by foreign language educators to serve the needs of our constituents to be fully human and to become self-actualized. Beginning at the bottom of the figure, one first encounters physiological needs, those like demands for food and water that must be met for survival. In foreign language education the equivalent is learning grammar and the rudiments of a language to enable the learner to meet basic needs for communication. Simple tasks such as communicating one's needs for sustenance, obtaining shelter, earning a living, or asking for the location of the restroom are met at this level. Foreign languages make a unique contribution by extending this capacity beyond the learner's local setting. Indeed, most first-year foreign language textbooks provide the necessary vocabulary to meet physiological needs.

Once basic physiological needs are satisfied, human beings are able to address higher-level needs, such as safety, avoidance of pain or anxiety,

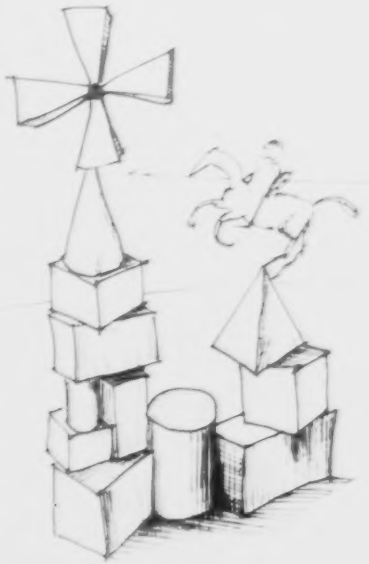

Self-Actualization
Depth of understanding of life's meaning beyond one's own context
Self-Esteem
Mileage markers: diplomas, degrees, certificates
Belongingness and Love
Communication with people of other cultures
Security
Communication of health matters; safety and security concerns; travel uses
Survival
Basic skills

Figure 2-2. A Garfinkel/Schrank View of Foreign Languages

and satisfaction of the desire for security. In foreign language learning, one might study a language to reduce the anxiety of travel in a foreign country. At this level the foreign language learner would gain the capacity to describe health problems and would recognize the need for language skills to ensure personal security. Language at this level may be perceived as a symbolic barrier that must be surmounted to preserve one's self-interest.

In the larger view, language for national security is needed at least by some, but not by all, members of the society. The profession addresses such needs in a variety of ways, including language immersion training programs for ambassadors and foreign-service employees.

Further up the needs hierarchy is the category of belongingness and love. In the language context, learners develop skills that enable them to connect socially with others, communicate with workplace peers and foreign clients, and identify with another culture and participate in it through business and cultural activity. Learners at this level may engage in extensive conversation, discuss topics of greater substance than *Wo ist die Toilette?*, view foreign films, travel for cultural enrichment, etc. In the broader sense, knowledge of foreign languages also builds bridges between cultures and in this way serves to satisfy collective needs to belong in a global village.

Needs for esteem are represented by many of the mileage markers of our profession. The individual learner begins to experience self-respect, adequacy, mastery, and competence in a language. The profession tests and rewards attainment of this competence with various mileage markers such as certificates and diplomas. A student begins to gain the respect of peers who recognize and esteem one's growing language competency.

In the broader sense, esteem might be represented by the use of the language of one's client in a business transaction, or by the mutual respect between colleagues in an industry who can share in each other's language, culture, and success through establishment of trust. Balanced international trade might well be one manifestation of such collective esteem.

Finally, we reach the ultimate concern of the humanist, self-actualization. At this level, having satisfied other needs, human beings are able to address their own needs for knowledge for its own sake and for aesthetic pursuits. In foreign languages, the need to know might well be represented by the humanist's curiosity about what it means to be fully human and how other cultures view this issue, and by the use of languages and

literatures to obtain cultural understanding, to bring pleasure, and to satisfy curiosity. Satisfaction of aesthetic needs might relate to the learner's appreciation of the aesthetic structure of the language and its literature or the beauty of a culture or reading for an aesthetic experience.

It is only when most basic and intermediate needs of human beings are satisfied that they are able to address the matter of self-actualization. Similarly, in foreign languages, it is only when the learner's most basic needs and skills are addressed first that the learner is able to address humanistic questions. Saporta suggests that jobs and enrollments do not matter; we take issue with this argument, however, since it is clear that attention to such matters as jobs is the first step on the road to self-actualization for our students.

It therefore becomes obvious that, Saporta's argument notwithstanding, enrollments do matter. The opportunity to experience a foreign language must be offered to the broadest possible audience. The audience must not be limited to the brightest, to the foreign language classroom, nor even to the classroom setting. Placement figures matter too, for they represent the degree to which foreign language educators have been successful at communicating the value and uses of language to address basic human needs.

Conclusion

It is important that the needs of language learners be addressed in a systematic way, in accordance with Maslow's hierarchy of human needs. The mileage markers of the profession need to begin at the lowest level of needs of the learner and be intertwined throughout the curriculum. Mileage markers serve to reward accomplishments in an incremental fashion that will provide motivation to continue study and to satisfy still higher needs. Many foreign language professionals may see the traditional and vocational justifications for foreign language study outlined above as being in tense opposition. There has been argument that one is somehow better than the other, or that one justification must be ignored to realize the other. Our analysis, however, suggests that the two schools of thought are not mutually exclusive; that they can be combined in a structure that addresses all human needs ranging from the most urgent concerns for basic survival to the most humanistic. Moreover, it is clear that viewing justifications for language study in *both* the narrowest *and* the broadest of

terms simultaneously, and learning how to use marketing techniques for presenting the valuable and essential product that teachers of foreign languages purvey,[4] augurs well for a relaxation of present tension.

Notes

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2. In a personal interview in April 1987, Mark S. Davis, president of Greater Lafayette Progress, an organization charged with attracting new business to the Lafayette area, explained that the presence of Japanese language instruction in the area school curriculum was one important element among others that attracted the Subaru-Isuzu of America plant to Lafayette, Indiana.
3. For a brief description of Maslow's hierarchy see Monte (1980, pp. 550–65).
4. Interactive techniques for marketing foreign language study were demonstrated by Garfinkel and Schrank at the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, at Minneapolis, MN, on March 14–18, 1988.

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3
Integrating a Foreign Language into the Pre-K through Grade 5 Program: The Baker Model

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The group of twenty-three first- and second-graders is laughing uproariously as they sit cross-legged on the rug in the corner of their classroom. The children are listening to a new story in French; they have never heard this tale in either English or French and are enjoying immensely the humor of "L'Âne et le petit garçon."

These first- and second-graders have been experiencing the French language since October of the previous year. It is now April—one year and a half after their debut. They are using their experience with French and their observational and life skills to interpret the tale; the teacher is not translating. The children are laughing, watching, and listening attentively.

These children are *not* in an immersion program. Half of them have had three 20-minute lessons per week for one year and a half. The other half of the class had two or three 15-minute lessons per week for the first year and have had three 20-minute lessons per week since October. They have thus accrued between 30 and 46 hours of French experience, breaking for three summer months. None of them speaks French at home. How have these children arrived at the point where they are able to comprehend a story that they have never heard in a language that they hear but three times per week? What has facilitated the children's

comprehension of a language to which they have been exposed for only 46 hours? The program in which they participate addresses them at their own developmental levels. It not only includes the foreign language content, but also considers what children need in order to learn.

The authors propose that the developmentally appropriate and integrative nature of the program engages the children in ways that are meaningful to them, that are nonthreatening, that foster their comfort in French, and that promote positive perceptions of themselves as communicators in French and develop their approaches to acquiring a foreign language. This program respects the children as auditors of their experience.

What Is "Developmentally Appropriate Practice"?

In order to fully understand the nature of this program, it is important to define the phrase *developmentally appropriate* as it has been used in other contexts as well as how it is used here. The term *developmental* has been used elsewhere to describe programs for children and adults with learning difficulties or with subject-area deficiencies (e.g., developmental math, developmental writing). The term is also sometimes used to describe FLEX programs in which children study six to eight weeks of one language followed by six to eight weeks of another. *Developmentally appropriate practice* as used in the context of the Baker French Program, however, refers to an understanding and appreciation of how children develop in their physical, cognitive, social, and emotional capacities.

Developmentally appropriate practice refers to the application of this understanding to the classroom setting, wherein a child-centered classroom and school are based on knowledge of child development. Choices of scheduling, curriculum, activities, and approach are based on the awareness of children's capabilities and processes at any given age. The applications for a four-year-old learner differ from those for the six-year-old, and these differ in turn from those for the ten-year-old. Developmentally appropriate choices accept the reality that the child's stage of development and the child's experience will determine what and how she or he learns. Thus, a developmentally appropriate language program is one that is based on children's reality, and that works with the children's developmental stages rather than attempting to contort the children to fit the expectations or goals of the adults in the community.

How Do Children Grow Linguistically?

Developmental theorists such as Bruner, Piaget, and Vygotsky note that children's *experience* with people and objects is the foundation for developing their understanding of the world. Further, in order to make sense of experience, children construct their own understandings and theories about the world. Shatz and Gelman (1982), Donaldson (1978), and Nelson (1985) have demonstrated that young children are more capable linguistically and cognitively than they appear to be to many adults.

Children understand events, then label them. "Through interacting with a ball—acting upon it and understanding how it can be used—children develop the concept of ball" (Genishi, 1988, p. 17). Children do not simply apply labels to common objects in the environment; they match labels with actions or experiences over which they have some control. In terms of general event representation, children first learn words that refer to the most meaningful events of their daily lives (Nelson, 1985). Children acquire words at varying rates and select different events and words as the most meaningful ones for them as individuals. Often, children show an understanding of relational terms that reflect meanings before they can manipulate the terms themselves.

Children attend to language presented in an interactive context. "By age 3 or 4, young children have an organizing strategy that leads them to categorize words into domains, such as color words (Genishi, 1988, p. 19). The teacher who makes up a story or uses a story to "teach" words reaches more children than the teacher who presents words in a lesson format (Watson, 1987). Older learners, too, benefit from a variety of experiences and from broadened, rather than narrowed, sources of learning (Chall and Snow, 1982). Story-making and story-hearing come naturally to children. They are "language users" much more than they are "word learners."

When children acquire their first language, no one is constantly repeating (or asking them to repeat) sentences like "The book is on the table." Rather, children create their own understandings of the meanings of the words they hear. These understandings, or concepts, grow out of the many experiences that the children have. Every "goo-goo" they produce, every word that they speak or misspeak, for example, is cele-

brated by adults (Ogintz, 1988). This is how children develop the speech patterns of their environment.

In second language instruction for children, we need to observe this language process and accept what is natural to the child as working toward the norm of language that we are trying to attain. We need to see the children's natural utterances and language-acquisition activities as part of the linguistic development process that we seek to promote.

"Language" versus "language"

When we are establishing a program of foreign language for children, we need to distinguish between language as we analyze it and language as we use it. We need to teach language first as we use it and later, after the children have developed a certain level of experience, analyze the grammar and structure of the language. Children use language in their independent play with words, in their practice with sounds, in role play, in word invention, and in countless other meaningful (to them) ways. Frequently we hear groups of children who have been exposed to French, for example, imitating French sounds, rhythm, and intonation to the point where the children truly appear to be speaking French when in fact they are not.

Children develop early a sense of metalanguage, or "Language," but their frame of reference remains rooted in their experience, or "language." The statement "The children in Quebec speak French" has no meaning for early language learners because they don't know what "French" is. Teaching the foreign language by talking about it is akin to saying "You do addition by adding." Without prior knowledge of (i.e., experience with) the concept of French or that of addition, the terminology is at best confusing and at worst frustrating. Nouns, verbs, and adjectives are abstract labels that have no meaning for children. Children analyze the language around them in a natural manner and integrate the meaningful structures and words into their life. A few examples may serve to illustrate this distinction.

1. Gina, age 5, was accustomed to hearing *Je ne sais pas* when her French teacher expressed a lack of knowledge in a given situation. One day, Gina and her mother were riding in their van when Gina posed a question. When her mother responded in her college

Spanish, *Yo no sé*, Gina corrected her mother by saying, *Yo no sé PAS*.

2. Courtney, another student who had been exposed to French in school, was accustomed to hearing with gestures *Comment ça va? Ça va bien ou ça va mal?* when the teacher was asking the children how they were feeling. One January afternoon, Courtney responded *Ça va*, to the teacher's question with the appropriate French gesture, as if out of the blue. When asked where that answer had come from, Courtney replied, "It just makes sense. Is it okay?"
3. Tim, age 7, was used to hearing the teacher ask *Pourquoi?* to find out why children were feeling sad, happy, or so-so. He was also accustomed to hearing the teacher respond *C'est chouette!* when something was great or *C'est dommage*, when the situation was unfortunate. One breezy March morning, the teacher responded to one child's query about the teacher's feelings by saying "So-so." Tim asked, "*Pourquoi?*" and when told the explanation, pursued and said, "*C'est dommage*," all on his own. He had heard the expressions and probably played with them on his own; now they emerged, undrilled and unprompted, as his.

Teaching Developmentally

Psycholinguists agree that learners are active participants in their language acquisition processes and that language develops through stages. The developmentally appropriate approach to FLES respects children's learning processes and stages and provides an environment in which the children feel good about exploring the language. Rather than didactic presentation, or lecture, of words and their objects, the teacher using a developmental approach recreates in the target language a situation that is familiar to the children from their life experiences.

Often, at least initially, the teacher uses the native language to set the stage and give a frame of reference, a context, for rich understanding. This use of the first language is often discouraged by foreign language authorities as being confusing or counterproductive. The authors and their colleagues have found, however, that setting the stage in English for the children provides a context within which their limited experience with the foreign language may find focus.

Purposes and Goals of a Developmentally Appropriate Program

In order to create and establish a developmentally appropriate program, it is first necessary to understand what developmentally appropriate practices are. One must be conversant with these practices to ensure that the program goals are realistic in terms of how children learn at a given age. The authors have evolved the following adaptation to FLES of Bredekamp's "Developmentally Appropriate Practice," a much-cited, highly regarded source in child development.

- Accept the principle that a good FLES program is *not* a scaled-down version of a high school program.
- Design interactions and activities to develop learners' self-esteem and positive feelings toward the target language.
- Provide concrete learning activities with materials and individuals relevant to the lives of the learners.
- Recognize that learners learn from self-directed problem-solving and experimentation.
- Accept learners' play and opinions as valuable to the learning process.
- Provide opportunities for aesthetic expression.
- Provide opportunities for movement.
- Use children's natural curiosity and desire to make sense of their world to motivate them to become involved.
- Relate learning experience to the world of children in France, Mexico, Germany, Japan, etc.
- Support learners as they acquire skills. Watch to see what learners are trying to do and provide the necessary support to help them accomplish the task.
- Respect learners' preferences for activities, songs, topics, stories.
- Provide choices.

Bredekamp (1986) makes the following statement:

> It is possible to drill learners until they can correctly recite pieces of information such as the alphabet or the numerals from 1 to 20. However, learners' responses to rote tasks do not reflect real understanding of the information. For learners to fully understand and remember what they have learned, the information must be meaningful to the learner in the context of the learners'

> experience and development. Learning information in meaningful context is not only essential for children's understanding and development of concepts, but is also important for stimulating motivation in learners. If learning is relevant for learners, they are more likely to persist with a task and to be motivated to learn more. (pp. 8–9)

The program that applies these practices is designed to integrate flexibly into the regular classroom as the foreign language teacher and the classroom teacher working together see fit. Its philosophy accommodates all children in its goal of providing them ways and means to enjoy acquiring foreign language, and in its awareness that each child perceives the world in a unique fashion and therefore acquires unique pieces of the language. The skills of listening and communicative competence that are developed through participation in this acquisition approach transfer readily to other languages, to English skills and strategies, and to human global awareness and involvement.

One Example: The Baker French Program

At the Baker Demonstration School in Evanston, Illinois, a program has been developed that seeks to work in harmony with the philosophy and principles of developmentally appropriate teaching. The purposes of the Baker French Program are as follows:

1. Put the children at ease with French.
2. Help the children integrate French into their daily lives.
3. Facilitate the children's capacity to understand French.
4. Facilitate the children's capacity to speak French.
5. Create and encourage an ambience of pleasure and of respect.
6. Encourage curiosity about the French-speaking world (and, consequently, about the world beyond the United States).
7. Develop and maintain the readiness of the learners to read, write, and later, formally study French grammar.
8. Give the learners a way to learn a foreign language.
9. *HAVE FUN!*

To begin the Baker French Program, the French teacher visited all classes and spent one week of half-days with each class, participating where appropriate in the lessons, and taking every opportunity to talk with the children in English. This process permitted everyone to get acquainted:

the French teacher came to know each group of children, each teacher's classroom, and each teacher; the classroom teacher got acquainted with the French teacher; and the children met the French teacher. The French teacher, thus, became a real person for the children, trusted and liked, before she began speaking to them in unrecognizable strings of sounds that might frustrate or frighten them. This foundation of trust facilitated the children's acceptance of and interest in French, their perception of French as something positive, and consequently, their acquisition of expressions and communicative skills in French. The importance of this phase cannot be overemphasized.

In planning the Baker Program, classroom teachers recommend lengths and numbers of lessons. With their participation and that of the director, the following schedule was devised:

3-year-olds	Two 5- to 10-minute lessons per week
4-year-olds	Two 10- to 15-minute lessons per week
5-year-olds	Early in the year, two 15-minute lessons per week, increased to three upon classroom teacher's recommendation (about mid-October)
6- to 8-year-olds	Three 20-minute lessons per week
9-year-olds	Three 25-minute lessons per week
10-year-olds	Three 30-minute lessons per week

Our experience in observing the above schedule was that children are fresh from the beginning to the end of the lesson and they clamor for more. They are engaged, interested, active, and motivated; they do not have the chance to grow bored or disruptive. This developmentally appropriate practice of tailoring the scheduling to the children's age-appropriate attention spans thus assures an acceptance of the lessons by child-centered teachers, by administrators, and by the children themselves, who perceive foreign language as a normal part of their day.

Curriculum. The curriculum is driven by the regular classroom themes, the children's life-interests, favorite storybooks, and special events and news. Activities are designed to reinforce skills that the children are developing in their mathematics, science, social studies, and language arts lessons. The theme-centered activities continually reintegrate expressions or words of past lessons through stories, guessing games, graphing activities, or child-generated puppet shows, for example. The children do

learn their colors and numbers, but they learn them in a variety of contexts over time so that these become part of the children's real experience.

We hear sounds as we are,
not as they are.
(Adapted from Talmud)

Teaching Pronunciation. Have you ever tried to remember and hum the melody of one song while another is playing? One set of notes and rhythms and melodies "plays" and trying to produce another becomes a struggle. Our language learners often find themselves in this unbelievable position of trying to produce the foreign language lyrics to the melody and tempo of English.

Do you know a child who says "pasghetti" for "spaghetti" but corrects the adult who says "pasghetti"? Children in acquiring their first language demonstrate a clear sense of the phonetic norm. A child may even—sometimes in tears—insist that he is saying something the right way (Butler, 1980). The child is not being obstinate, nor is the child stupid; he or she is hearing the sound and striving to imitate the sound. The child's approximation may not yet be that of adult speech, but eventually, unless a speech defect interferes, the child will pronounce the sound to the specifications of the environment.

Why, then, do we in foreign language insist on drilling pronunciation? The child is becoming familiar with a new sound system and relating it to her or his known system, experimenting to find the way that is just right. Yet we drill, insisting that the more often it is repeated, the faster it will be learned, and the less chance there is of developing bad habits. Does one drill children acquiring their first language? The authors suggest profound introspective reevaluation by the profession on this question. It needs to be refocused.

Sounds do not occur in isolation. Each is colored by the sounds that precede and succeed it. The learner interprets a sound through the familiar sound system (English in this case) and attempts to approximate the sounds.[2] This individual process of internalizing the rhythm and the sounds of the target language is essential to the children's development as confident speakers of that language. Their successful internalization of the new sounds and rhythms manifests itself in their play when they are able to produce nonsensical utterances that appear to the listener to be actual speech in its intonation patterns, rhythm, and sounds.

This "drawing from the children" also provides an opportunity for them to derive personal satisfaction from discovery, *working out*, and eventual success at their task. This experience is extremely important to their perception of themselves as successful language learners. The process and the resulting sense of success are equally evident in vocabulary development and expressive contexts, where the children draw from within themselves the right word or the appropriate formation (not as drilled, but as experienced). The centrality of this notion of discovery is not to be underestimated: the children exercise their own curiosity and ask very good questions. It is important to follow their lead.

Communication and Results

With Teachers

Collaboration with classroom teachers, who participate in the conceptualization of the lessons, is integral to the success of the developmentally appropriate FLES program. The teachers' plans for the year's units need to be integrated into the foreign language units. The classroom teachers also participate in the lesson itself, which models a positive attitude for the children and encourages them in their own acquisition process. For example, children see that it is acceptable to make mistakes. The classroom teachers further provide insightful feedback to the language teacher. These opinions and observations about the appropriateness of the activities in their classes are essential to the creation and development of lessons and of the program.

Many classroom teachers from Baker as well as from other schools have reported having had unpleasant experiences as language learners. Some of them reported unpleasant experiences with a language teacher in their classroom. Because of the language-learning history that each teacher brings to the classroom, the foreign language professional needs to consult the classroom teacher in the content choice and appropriateness of the program as well as to provide reassurance of the teacher's ability to acquire a foreign language.

Baker teachers have made the following observations about the Baker French Program:

- "The children express often and clearly that they do not have French enough. They thoroughly enjoy the lessons. The hands-on

approach, the songs, the dances, and all the props keep them fascinated."

- "They are excited by it and are proud of their accomplishments."
- "They look forward to the classes and are disappointed on the days we do not have it."
- "I like the learning by doing/using approach. You use things the students are interested in, such as sports, birthdays, and songs."
- "I truly enjoy the after-school French classes for the teachers. It is an essential part of this program." (Strupeck, forthcoming)

With Parents

Because of the unique nature of the program, it is often necessary (and always desirable) to explain the process of language acquisition to parents, who, like the classroom teachers, may have dismal memories of their own foreign language classes. Many parents never experienced anything like this program, and enjoy hearing about (though they do not always believe!) how much fun language learning can be. Sometimes, parents' enthusiasm about a child's success leads them to push for more. When this happens, it is necessary that the teacher gently remind parents that the process cannot be hurried, but must be nurtured; they must understand that these children respond to natural stimuli, and do not translate on command, for example, for that is neither how we use language nor how it is learned.

Parents also need suggestions from the foreign language teacher about how to carry on at home with the language and about appropriate foreign language music and storybooks available to them. Parents often feel relieved when it is suggested, for example, that they play foreign language music cassettes and just have fun. They feel comfortable when they know they are not expected to instruct.

Parents like and need to be kept informed. Part of this information process in the Baker Program is an address to the parents at the beginning of the year about the philosophies and goals of the workings of the program. This address provides an opportunity to explain to the parents how language acquisition works and the child-centered nature of the program. Parents and administrators need to know the signals that show that their children are processing this new language. (Signs to look for: Are the children singing songs at home? Do they teach their baby brothers and

their dogs French? When you watch a video of the classroom, are the children watching hard? Are they observing and listening and joining in when they are ready? Do they answer in English when a question is posed to them in French? Do they express delight? nervousness? excitement?)

Parents appreciate regular notices in the school newsletter to parents. They like to hear about classroom activities and about the teacher's professional activities. They enjoy the reiterated explanations of the acquisition process when their children receive reports (not grades). The parents love seeing what their children have been doing. It is new for everyone.

A helpful and welcome avenue for engaging the parents is a weekly language class for them. The themes and activities should be those that are used with the children. When the parents experience firsthand the success that their children feel, they become more comfortable sharing French with their children. They also become more "invested." It is suggested that a parent class begin after the children have had the language for one semester's time: the children then may experience the double pleasure of sharing their new language and of teaching it. It must be made clear that the purpose of the parents' class is to *support* their children's fun, not for the parents to *instruct* the children. Baker parents have submitted the following remarks about the Baker French Program:

- "[T]he children look forward to the lesson and the experience."
- "I am pleased about what I hear going on with French, but I am not convinced enough emphasis and time is being given to it in the classroom."
- "Good. I feel it is a more integrated approach to language than [as] taught in the past."
- "Fantastic! I wish I had [had] this opportunity when I was a child." (Strupeck, forthcoming)

With Children

Children are often honest and forthright in their comments on activities when they feel they are listened to and respected. Asking for and acting upon their input reflects the teacher's respect and also provides a way to develop the children's responsibility for their own learning. When a game does not seem to work, for example, or if the children appear bored, the teacher can ask how it could be made better. One might ask them what

they like to do and design the lessons with these preferences in mind. From the youngest to the eldest, the children then feel invested in the language.

Similarly, when writing a song, a rap, or a list of favorite things to eat, generating the language from the children makes it theirs: they own the language and they remember. We should ask them what they do, what they like, how they feel. Often they will be happy to share these thoughts, though when they prefer not to do so, the teacher should respect their right to silence.

This approach works. One group of first-graders was able to recite a rap that they wrote in French about places to go on their bicycles even seven months after the last time that they had performed it. One year after the performance, they taught it to another first-grade class; one girl, Megan, brought her beret to school for show-and-tell to recount the experience of writing and performing the rap and to share her feelings. (Children generally bring their treasures to show-and-tell, so this was clearly an important experience to her.)

Giving children a choice of songs also engages them in the decision making: it is their lesson thereafter. (It also provides a wonderful opportunity to count in the target language in a meaningful way: one must count the votes that each song receives.) Accepting and responding to the children's feelings affirms them, and the children feel better able to try new things and to make mistakes.

The Baker children responded to a query about what they liked in their French lessons in these ways:

- "I like the whole thing."
- "I like the color walk."
- "I'm happy about learning French. . . . I teach it to my mom."
- "Please come more often."
- "I think everyone should get prizes."
- "She always has something different to do." (Strupeck, forthcoming)

With the Administrator

The unequivocal, active, wholehearted, enthusiastic support of administrators makes or breaks the program. The children's unparalleled enthusiasm and the parents' dynamic support mean little without an enthusiastic administrator. She or he ultimately determines the fate of the foreign

language program, as teachers often take their cues from the administrative stance. When an administrator advocates the program and the vision, teachers are more likely to invest themselves than when the administrator is either detached or cynical about the program. It is better that no program exist at all than that the program (and thus the perception of foreign language) be tainted by disinterest and detachment on the part of any administrator or teacher. Children look to these people as their role models and imitate their postures and their attitudes.

Conclusion: Toward a Kinder, Gentler Perspective

Children make meaning out of life. They interact with people, objects, events, and language. Gradually, they understand more clearly, then label verbally, the concepts that compose events. Language emerges from them in the form of gurgles, then sounds, then words, then phrases, then sentences. Children listen. They observe. They practice through their play. We need to appreciate this as we plan for and with them. For the population raised in traditional foreign language programs, the changes advocated in a developmentally appropriate approach to FLES may be unsettling. Genishi (1988), however, reassures us that

> although child-oriented classrooms lack drill-like, repetitious language, they do have a rhythm and stability that enable children to repeat—or, more accurately, replay—what they are learning in the context of activities that make human sense. A word may be repeated 20 times or more, not in the senseless context of an isolated sentence, but in a range of contexts: a poem, a child-created song or drama, a caption for a drawing, a chant, a story that children beg to hear again, a game that a child plays and replays with friends, or a conversation with children or the teacher. (p. 22)

Drawing upon the language experience of children promotes the emergence of a second language. We need to draw upon our understanding of the cognitive and emotional processes of children acquiring their first language in order to design and develop appropriate approaches and activities to help them acquire their second.

Notes

1. For further information, contact Paula Strupeck, 3730 N. Lake Shore Dr. #8A, Chicago, IL 60613.
2. Hence, /tre/ sounds like /the/ as the child speaks it. /l/ is the closest English liquid to the French /r/. For most children, therefore, pronunciation drill is counterproductive and usually unnecessary in

the early stages of learning a foreign language. Children often pronounce the /r/ as /l/. The authors have found that children, left to their own exploration, have arrived at the /r/ sound between one week and three months without teacher interference. Considering that this sound, /r/, is among the last sounds acquired by native French speakers, this is no small accomplishment!

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4
FLEX: A Golden Opportunity for Motivating Students for Foreign Language Study

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FLEX is the common acronym used to describe a presequenced Foreign Language EXploratory course ranging in length from six to nine weeks. Such a course is designed to motivate students to pursue foreign language study, to develop their interest in the world and its peoples, and to increase their sensitivity to cultural similarities and differences. There are a variety of FLEX programs in existence (Grittner, 1974). Some are cultural in nature, others emphasize linguistics, and still others are career-based (Strasheim, 1982, p. 60). The FLEX course is usually offered in sixth, seventh, or eighth grade before foreign language study is formally begun and gives the students an introduction to several foreign languages and cultures. This enables students to make a choice of a foreign language at a later time based on experience.

Curriculum

Presently there are no textbooks available that set the curriculum for such a FLEX course, leaving the development of curriculum to individual teachers. The difficulty of finding appropriate materials to fill a nine-week introductory course for seventh-grade junior-high students justifies a look into possible methodologies, theories of language learning, and

techniques that might motivate students to enroll in a foreign language. In this writer's opinion, a methodologically eclectic approach is preferable, and is in keeping with the goals of the FLEX curriculum where a balance is sought between language acquisition and culture. The course should also be a true introduction to the first year of foreign language study and not a mere "fun and games" experience lacking in substance. Finally, it is imperative to impress upon students that foreign language study teaches much more than language skills: special attention should be given to developing good study habits and critical thinking skills, to teaching across the curriculum, and ultimately to sensitizing students to differences and similarities among world cultures and developing a sense of global perspective in the students.

An Effective Beginning: Destroying the Myth

It is always difficult to surmount the myth that foreign languages are difficult to learn. One way to address the affective needs of students is to begin with cognates. A carefully prepared overhead transparency with twenty-five target-language English cognates, for example, will quickly lessen fears about the language. Words should be ones whose meaning students will readily recognize from sight or sound. A short introduction to the relationship between English and the target language should follow this activity. Next, students can be divided into pairs, supplied with a cognate sheet containing seventy-five cognates, and told they have five minutes to find the English equivalents. (It is advisable to make frequent use of techniques that allow for pair work, group work, and student-centered activities. The proverb "Tell me and I will forget, teach me and I will remember, involve me and I will learn" is well worth remembering when teaching FLEX.)

The Asher Method, also known as "Total Physical Response" (TPR), is another tool that is well suited to increasing student participation and reducing anxieties in learning a foreign language. In this connection, it may be desirable to first explain right- and left-brain learning theory to the students and to do so by using illustrations from their own first-language acquisition. A concrete way of illustrating right-brain learning to students can easily be accomplished by bringing two balls to class, a blue and a red one. The students are asked to demonstrate various ways they would teach a two-year-old the difference between the red and the blue ball.

Invariably the students resort to commands—"Go get the blue ball. No, no, that's the red one, get the blue one." Other students point to similarly colored objects in the classroom, while still others touch items of the same color. It becomes clear to the students that by becoming involved in the learning ("learning by doing") that the learning is effective, fun, and stress-free. This discovery on the part of the students serves as a springboard for the teacher to illustrate the Asher (TPR) method: Through a series of commands such as "stand up," "sit down," and "point to the flag," students are physically involved in the action and fully participate in the learning process. A next logical step might be to teach body parts through a series of commands that the teacher models and that all students carry out simultaneously. After a few minutes of this activity, the students will have mastered numerous body parts and several commands. Simultaneously, they will have discovered firsthand that learning a foreign language is indeed not as difficult as they may have thought.

In order to promote success in the FLEX course and to reinforce good study habits, students should be required to keep a FLEX notebook, in which they record all in-class notes as well as daily assignments. This notebook can serve not only as an excellent study guide for quizzes and tests, but more importantly, it can instill in students good note-taking and organization skills.

For optimal learning to occur, it is important in any unit that is taught to incorporate all four skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). Culture must also be infused and logically integrated to underscore the content of the lesson, not merely added on. In the remainder of this paper, a variety of strategies will be described that illustrate the use of the four skills to teach the German alphabet and numbers and to accomplish effective integration of culture. While German has been chosen for illustration, the techniques can be used to teach other foreign languages as well.

The Alphabet

A good starting point for FLEX classes is the alphabet. It can be taught in a variety of ways: one way is to divide it into four parts, *abcdefg, hijklmnop, qrstuvw, xyz*. Practice the individual sounds, reminding the students that in speaking German the mouth must be opened more widely than is typical for speakers of English. Illustrate where the tongue is

located in the mouth when these sounds are formed. After all sounds have been practiced, the alphabet song should be taught:

a b c d e f g
h i j k l m n o p
q r s t u v w
x y z O weh!
kann nicht lernen das abc.

(Mozart composed this melody. Hence, the opportunity to elaborate on Mozart and his music can be utilized.) A quick twenty-six-point test could consist of repeating or singing the alphabet the next day.

To practice the alphabet further, the German script can be taught via an overhead containing the German alphabet in script form. This is a very popular unit with younger students. To make it culturally authentic, a page can be copied out of an authentic German *Schulheft*. The students can copy a ten-line poem, or perhaps an English translation of the German national anthem, into this *Schulheft*.

Another way to practice the alphabet once some basic vocabulary has been learned is to incorporate DiDonato's "typewriter" activity: the teacher assigns each student a letter (a, b, c, . . .) and then calls out a word such as *Schule* ("school"). The student who is "s" stands up and says "s" in German; the student who is "c" does the same, followed by "h" and so on, until the word is correctly spelled in German. (As a homework assignment, students can be assigned to select five English words, none longer than eight letters, that they dictate in German to a classmate the following day.)

Classroom Phrases

In order to maximize the speaking of the target language by the students, the teacher should initially teach and display three phrases the students must always say in German: *Wie, bitte?* ("Repeat, please"), *Ich weiß nicht* ("I don't know"), and *Welche Seite, bitte?* ("Which page, please?"). By enforcing the "German-only" rule with these commonly posed questions in the classroom, English interruptions are kept to a minimum. Gradually, additional phrases can be added.

Numbers

The teaching of numbers is a must in all FLEX classes. Numbers can be taught in a variety of fun and exciting ways. Rather than starting with the number one and working one's way up to ten, for example, it has proven successful to begin with a set of colored, laminated numbers and an overhead projector. The teacher selects a number such as five and shows it to the class while saying: *Das ist die Nummer fünf. Sie ist lila. Ich lege die Nummer fünf mitten auf die Maschine* ("This is the number five. It is purple. I am placing the number five in the middle of the machine."). The students are provided with their own set of laminated, colored numbers and do as the teacher models. (Using this TPR technique, the instructor can teach colors while teaching numbers, as well as adverbs and prepositions such as *unter, über, neben, links, rechts, oben,* and *unten*). After the students have placed the numbers on their desks, they point to the numbers as the teacher calls them out. (The same can be done with colors.) Students may also be called to the overhead to point out numbers on the screen that their classmates call out.

Another excellent right-brain method for learning numbers is to illustrate them using body parts. For example:

1 = student points to nose
2 = student points to both ears
3 = student points to chin
4 = student points to shoulders
5 = student claps hands
6 = student shows six fingers
7 = student slaps hands on upper legs
8 = student holds up four fingers on both hands
9 = student gives thumbs up with both hands
10 = student crosses arms in front and stretches them out to the sides
11 = student holds right hand out
12 = student holds left hand out, etc.

This technique allows for a building process in learning numbers and has proven especially successful in working with children who have learning disabilities and who rank in lower reading groups. The students readily internalize these numbers in reference to the body parts.

There are also innumerable nursery rhymes in most languages that can be used to reinforce numbers. One popular one in German goes as follows:

Eins, zwei, Polizei
Drei, vier, Offizier
Fünf, sechs, alte Hex'
Sieben, acht, gute Nacht
Neun, zehn, schlafen gehn
Elf, zwölf, kommen die wölf.

(The students find this particular rhyme rewarding because they can readily recognize many of these words early in their study of German.) Another variant to teaching numbers is to teach the song "Ten Little Indians," which in German is called *Zehn kleine Mädchen*. It is important to include culturally authentic songs in the curriculum; they should, of course, be integrated when they are relevant to the material being discussed and studied.

Authentic Materials: Suggestions and Integration

Research has indicated that the use of authentic materials optimizes learning in the foreign language classroom (Rogers and Medley, 1988, p. 467). For example, a genuine German calendar can be placed on the overhead; students are then asked to go to the screen and point to the date the teacher calls out. (Even the function of calling out dates can be carried out by students to initiate and reinforce speaking skills.) The students see that a genuine German calendar usually lists days of the month in vertical fashion and contains only the abbreviations for the days of the week, which provides another good cultural lesson. Thus, when learning the days of the week, a student may be asked *Zeig mir Montag* ("Show me Monday"). Students quickly realize that *Montag* must be *MO*, and this contextual guessing helps develop critical thinking skills that are especially important for students to exercise at this age (Cooper, 1987). Pointing out the Germanic origins of the days of the week in English (Friday from Frija, a Germanic goddess; Thursday from Thor's day, and so on) stresses another point of similarity between the two cultures.

In order to ensure that the students are led to higher-proficiency tasks, the teacher should make optimal use of the target language in doing listening comprehension exercises such as: *Was heißt der Tag am Ende*

Woche, bevor das Weekend? ("What is the last day of the week called, before the weekend?"). Although the students will not understand every word, they will listen for important cues in order to respond. Students at the beginning level need the challenge of going a little beyond their current level of competence (cf. Krashen's [1982] "comprehensible input" theory).

Another excellent way of incorporating authentic materials into the FLEX curriculum while teaching numbers is to find an advertisement in a German newspaper that would appeal to the students. It is important to personalize the selection of authentic materials to capitalize on student interest (Omaggio, 1986, p. 47). A good choice might be an advertisement for jeans, overalls, and shirts such as is shown in figure 4-1.

With the advertisement on the overhead, the students are asked to answer the following questions: *Wieviel kosten die Piloten Jeans?* ("How much do the Pilot jeans cost?"). *Wieviel kosten die Big Shirts?* ("How much are the Big Shirts?")

At this point German money can also be introduced. A poster board displaying German play money can serve as a point of departure for a comparison and contrast of German bills and U.S. bills. A variety of

Figure 4-1. Clothing advertisement from a German newspaper

critical thinking skills in comparing the money of the two countries can be addressed: What can the pictures on the bills tell us about the people and the culture of a country? What are some possible reasons that political figures appear on U.S. bills, while paintings appear on German bills? (These questions allow students to brainstorm ideas and ultimately can lead to interesting discussions about a variety of aspects of the culture.) Differences and similarities are recorded on an overhead transparency. This activity, in turn, can serve as a springboard for a cultural discussion on the German artist Dürer. Conversion of the German *Mark* to the U.S. dollar can also be demonstrated. As a homework assignment, for example, students select and cut out five ads from a newspaper or magazine that picture something they would like as a gift. They must convert these amounts into German *Mark*. If German catalogs (*Quelle*, *Neckermann*) are available, this activity can be carried out by converting from *Mark* into dollars.

Another excellent source of authentic materials is the telephone book (Lalande, 1985). A page can be enlarged and placed on an overhead. As students view the overhead, the teacher poses a number of questions: "What is this?" "What can we find out about a person from a German telephone book?" "How do German telephone numbers differ from U.S. telephone numbers?" "What kinds of street names do they have?" By using the inside front page of the telephone book, one can teach the students how to reach the local operator and the international operator. (The material learned in this kind of FLEX activity should be recycled in a spiral fashion in first-year German.)

Once the numbers and alphabet have been mastered, the students can be taught the game of *Seeschlacht* ("Battleship"). For this game, the students are divided into pairs and play for twenty minutes. All students are provided with game grids (horizontal squares are numbered one through ten and vertical squares are labeled A through J) upon which they hide four battleships. Through a series of guesses and responses, the students attempt to find each other's ships. The first student to find the opponent's ships wins. The students have been equipped with a thorough knowledge of the alphabet and numbers and thus may not say one word in English; if they do not understand their partner, they must say *Wie, bitte?* ("Please repeat"). This is a true oral proficiency activity: the students are

exchanging information in the target language within a week of their first exposure to German.

Another good number activity is what can be called the "Swatch Watch." Students are taught the parts of a wristwatch (*Armbanduhr*) on an overhead transparency. They are taught the rudiments of telling time (*vor, nach, halb, Viertel vor/nach*). A worksheet containing the faces of several clocks (with specific times on them) is passed out. As a homework assignment, students write out in German the time that appears on each clock. The students are provided with the latest Swatch watch brochures (available at any store that sells Swatch watches) and may choose a pattern or create their own Swatch design. (This is done as homework; it helps the students to personalize the activity.) Once everyone has a watch in hand, the teacher calls out *Schreibe die Zahl drei auf die Uhr, schreibe die Zahl zwölf*, etc. ("Write the number three on your watch, write the number twelve, etc."). The teacher circulates around the room to make certain everyone is following carefully. The following day each student must approach the teacher and ask *Verzeihung, wie spät ist es, bitte?* ("Excuse me, can you tell me the time, please?"). The teacher whispers a definite time to each student, and the students draw the appropriate times on their watches. The teacher collects these and laminates them for the following day. The next day the students are handed their laminated Swatches and carry out the final "Swatch Watch Activity": They paper-clip their Swatch watch on their wrist and, using German only, ask as many classmates as possible in ten minutes for the time. This activity, again, is a student-centered communicative activity.

A Global Dimension

A creative approach to teaching colors in combination with culture is through the use of flags of the German-speaking countries. The teacher draws the flags of German-speaking countries on five-by-eight index cards and laminates them. Using exclusively the target language and the TPR technique, the teacher explains to the students what these flags are: *Das ist die Flagge von der DDR. Sie ist schwarz, rot und gold/gelb. Die DDR ist im Osten, rechts neben der Bundesrepublik.* ("This is the flag of the GDR. It is black, red, and gold/yellow. The GDR is located in the east, to the right of Germany.") The teacher hands the flag to a student, who stands up next to the teacher. The teacher continues: *Das ist die Flagge*

von der Bundesrepublik. Sie is auch schwarz, rot und gold. Die BRD liegt neben der DDR. ("This is the flag of the Federal Republic of Germany. It is also black, red, and gold. The FRG is located next to the GDR.") This flag, too, is given to a student to hold, and the same procedure is followed until all the German-speaking countries are represented by students standing before the class. The students position themselves and hold the flags so as to reflect the relative geographical locations of the countries. (Several groups of students can be brought to the front of the room in turn.) The capitals of the countries can be learned the same way. The students have thus learned the German names of the German-speaking countries, their capitals, their flags, and where they are located.

Further cultural lessons can easily be incorporated by discussing related topics such as the neutrality (white cross) of Switzerland, or perhaps the symbolism on the DDR flag (wheat, hammer, compass). This activity can be extended to Germany's neighbors by providing students with a handout containing the flags of these countries (Strasheim, 1982b). The students color them for the next day and cut them out. The teacher models in front of the class as each student uses his or her set to carry out TPR-like commands: *Leg die Flagge von Dänemark über die Flagge der Bundesrepublik; die Flagge ist rot und weiss mit einem weissen Kreuz.* ("Place the flag of Denmark above the flag of the Federal Republic of Germany; the flag is red and white with a white cross.") Globalizing such activities not only prepares the students for the world, but also allows the teacher to teach across the curriculum.

Reaching beyond the Classroom

One of the desired elements of a FLEX class is to get parents involved in classroom activities. An activity that works especially well is to have the students ask their parents or older siblings to answer the following three questions:

1. What comes to mind when you hear the phrase "Made in Germany"?
2. What is the last newspaper story you can recall that had to do with Germany?
3. To which field(s) has Germany made a large contribution?

The students record the answers in their notebooks. The next day the teacher records parental responses on an overhead transparency. (Some of the most frequent answers to the first question, for example, include cars, food, china, beer, wine, candy, and clocks.) The answers are divided into rubrics (such as cars: Porsche, Volkswagen, Audi, Mercedes, and BMW).

The Bulletin Board: A Showplace of Culture

An excellent way to make the students aware of the German influences on U.S. culture is through the bulletin board. Students are asked to bring into class an advertisement or a picture of any product produced in Germany. Within three days the entire bulletin board will likely be a collage of Gummi Bear bags, pictures of clocks, watches, beer steins, Hummel figurines, chocolate bar wrappers, electrical appliances (e.g., Braun), and cars. A poster containing numerous words from German such as *kindergarten*, *delicatessen*, and *pumpernickel* can be produced and displayed. Pictures of famous German composers and scientists can also be included. As a hands-on activity, the students turn their desks toward the bulletin board and are told to divide all products and items that appear on the bulletin board into categories and write them into their notebooks. (The student who records the most items under the appropriate rubrics in fifteen minutes receives extra credit points.) The teacher then asks the students to state the items found and records them on an overhead transparency. This leads to numerous interesting discussions regarding the origins of foods (*torte*, *strudel*, *sauerkraut*, *hamburger*, *frankfurter*, *Kaiser rolls*); literature (Grimm's fairy tales, *Faust*); music (Mozart, Beethoven, Brahms, Bach); sports heroes (Becker, Witt, Lauer) and much more. The same type of activity can be carried out with German Christmas customs and their influence on U.S. customs (Nast's first caricature of Santa Claus, the Advent calendar, the Advent wreath, many familiar Christmas carols).

A Closer Look at Our Own Culture

It is interesting for the students to discuss German immigration to the United States in 1863. The Goethe Institute poster "Germany: A Slice of American Pie" can serve as a point of departure for this historical lesson.

The teacher can conduct an informal ethnic survey of German heritage among the students, compare the results with the 28 percent figure of German ethnicity in the United States at large, and point out that German is the largest ethnic minority in the United States. Famous Americans from Germany or of German heritage can be highlighted. (It is quite an insight for students to see the large number of Germans who have made contributions to the United States.) Stressing such similarities and joint efforts helps build an affinity within the students for German culture and motivates them to want to learn more about it (Strasheim, 1981).

Conclusion

There are innumerable activities that can be carried out in the nine-week FLEX program, and this article has sought to highlight a few of them, using German for illustrative purposes. It is important to stress all four skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing as well as culture. The materials should be taught in a spiral manner, to enable the topic to be recycled on a higher level the following year in the foreign language classroom. The activities must be selected according to the age, personal needs, and interests of the students and the personal teaching style of the teacher. New units should be continually devised to enhance the FLEX course and added to the repertoire of materials. This keeps both the teacher and the students fresh and eager to learn.

Where they exist at all, FLEX programs are usually aimed at seventh or eighth graders. The FLEX course thus provides foreign language teachers with a golden opportunity to expose students to the merits and enjoyment of learning a foreign language and culture.

Note

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5
Enhancing the Learning of Foreign Languages at the Middle School Level

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Introduction

Sturm und Drang (storm and stress) are words used at times to describe the transitional years from childhood to adulthood; i.e., adolescence (Sprinthall and Collins, 1984). Academics search for the theory and the research evidence to predict and explain the biological, psychological, and social roots of the behaviors of preteens and early teens. Any middle school or junior-high teacher "knows" the complexities and mysteries surrounding adolescents and explains that the greatest teaching challenge is indeed with them. Teachers explain that for the most part elementary school children are biddable and cooperative. High school students, while perhaps not consistently cooperative, can be reasoned with and made to see the logic of certain directives. Middle school students are, however, different: they are in the middle, which means that they are sometimes compliant children and other times illogically uncooperative and stubborn adolescents. For a teacher, these varying behavior patterns mandate a need to adjust instruction at a moment's notice in order to "fit" rapidly changing, unpredictable students (Lerner and Foch, 1987).

The instructional project reported in the present paper focused precisely on foreign language learners in the transitional world of

adolescence. The project consisted of infusing the Counseling-Learning/Community Language Learning (CL/CLL) approach into a traditional foreign language teaching setting. The objective of the project was to try to utilize a foreign language teaching approach that is open, yet controlled; sequenced, yet as rapidly changing as adolescents themselves.

Psychosocial Bases of Adolescent Development

Three forces are simultaneously tugging at the adolescent. First and most obvious are biological forces characterized by changes in body size and shape as well as increases in strength and other physical capabilities. These rapid body changes, a "single defining characteristic of adolescence" (Sprinthall and Collins, 1984, p. 57), contribute to the second principal force in the life of adolescents—social factors:

> The onset of puberty is socially mediated by the reactions of self and others. In this view one's self-image and self-esteem reflect one's own and others' subjective reactions to biological maturation. And these reactions are determined by sociocultural standards, norms, and expectations about physical characteristics that are widely held in a society or culture. (Sprinthall and Collins, 1984, p. 79)

The third force at work within the adolescent is cognitive in nature. Even though the *physical* development is most obvious and dramatic, *cognitive* changes are equally remarkable. Childhood thought is generally characterized as "concrete," limited by the "here and now" principle, as well as by details rather than global views. The onset of puberty brings with it, in contrast to childhood, an ability to think in the abstract and to manipulate thoughts and ideas rather than merely coping with the world in a concrete way. This dramatic change in thinking ability, this ability to begin problem-solving in abstract and creative ways, can be characterized as the psychological correlate to the ability to conceive.

Persons experienced with adolescents can readily identify these forces at work. These same persons are, however, quick to add a major qualification, i.e., that these forces are at work in highly variable ways that seem at times independent of age and apparent intellectual ability. For example, some adolescents experience rapid physical development, with girls generally developing more quickly than boys. These disparate physical development rates contribute to differential social behavior. Sprinthall

and Collins (1984) argue that "some adolescents may be quite skilled socially and may think in very complex ways about the nature of interpersonal relationships and interactions. . . . [others] may be less skilled socially" (p. 107). Cognitive functioning reveals a parallel phenomenon. Advanced cognitive functioning does not happen overnight. In fact, note Sprinthall and Collins, "the transition is a gradual one. For quite long periods a young person may show many instances of mature thought, accompanied by just as many instances of relatively immature thought" (p. 108). In summary, all of these variable forces at work serve to make the lives of those in contact with adolescents "interesting" at best.

Implications of Adolescent Behaviors for Instruction

Concretely stated, middle school teachers must cope with persons who are neither children nor adults. Consequently, in a school setting, instruction must be structured at times in an elementary school–like format with concrete tasks, and at other times it must be set in a more adult-like intellectual frame that encourages individual decision making and initiative.

Traditional methods of delivering foreign language instruction tend to address either one facet or the other, but not both simultaneously. Elementary school foreign language instruction tends to be oriented on the "here and now" principle, tapping children's natural abilities in mimicry, song, and play. Since children tend to be "concrete," instruction that deals with abstract concepts and ideas such as "the verb" or "the past tense" is avoided. Activities that convey "the verb"—such as playing, drawing, running, and pointing—and methods that are "real" and "touchable" are appropriate. High school language instruction, in contrast, often focuses on abstract concepts, either grammatical or cultural in nature. Students learn about the formal aspects of language operations, such as how participles are formed from verb stems. They also begin developing a sense of membership in a wider culture as well as healthy questioning techniques about the role and place of other cultural groups in the world.

Neither of these two radically different approaches to the instruction of foreign language seems compatible with what is known about adolescent development. While adolescents are no longer children and can, therefore, begin to cope with the world in a "problem-solving" manner,

they are not yet ready to cope with the world in a highly abstract fashion. Newman and Newman (1986, p. 256) comment as follows:

> The transition from concrete to formal operational thinking occurs gradually as children apply the general, systematic problem-solving approach to a broader and broader range of specific tasks.
>
> One quality of formal thought appears to be the realization that some kind of system or strategy is required for solving a problem. The person must anticipate that a number of dimensions or variables are involved in the solution to complex problems. . . . Neimark (1982) has suggested that there is a systematic progression in how young people approach problems during the years from 11 through 15. She described the progression as: (1) no rule; (2) limited rules; (3) collection of rules or unelaborated principles; and (4) general principles.

The Counseling-Learning/Community Language Learning (CL/CLL) approach to language teaching accommodates Neimark's stages as outlined by Newman and Newman.

Social factors seem to be as critical as cognitive aspects in adolescent development. The capacity to think hypothetically brings with it the capacity to make assumptions about oneself and others. Adolescents often fail to understand that others do not or may not share the same set of assumptions (Newman and Newman, 1986); they are caught up in their own thoughts and often believe that others also "share these same preoccupations" (p. 254). Hence, unlike the high school student, who may be able to discuss and perceive the relative merits of different cultures and ways of life, adolescents are not necessarily prepared to understand such discussions and develop such perspectives. Newman and Newman suggest that one way "to reduce adolescent egocentrism . . . [is through] social interaction with peers" (p. 255). This suggestion, too, is accommodated by a CL/CLL approach to teaching foreign languages.

Counseling-Learning/Community Language Learning and Its Theoretical Background

Counseling-Learning (CL), an approach to language learning and teaching devised by Charles A. Curran (1961, 1979), recognizes the need for ego permeability achieved through reduced inhibitions. Curran, a clinical psychologist interested in applying counseling skills to the teaching of

foreign languages, observed that many students at the university where he was teaching experienced anxiety and frustration when they attempted to learn second languages. As a clinical psychologist, he realized that those reactions observed among graduate students were very similar to the reactions expressed by psychological clients in beginning counseling interviews. He describes the similarities in the following manner:

> As the psychological client is moved more or less strongly in the direction of a personal solution and at the same time frustrated by his confusion, the language client is anxious to speak the language and is at the same time equally frustrated by his lack of linguistic tools. Both seem also in conflicting emotional states of wishing to be independent on the one side and to have someone else solve their problems; and on the other, feeling hostile and resistant to such dependency, in their own urges to find an independent self-directed solution. (Curran, 1961, p. 3)

Adopting the mode of a counseling situation for language instruction, Curran referred to the student as a "language client" and to the teacher who is equipped with linguistic resources and a counselor's warm, accepting, and empathetic attitude as a "language counselor." To break down inhibitions, Curran creates a learning situation that is characterized by warmth and acceptance. The role of the language counselor is to communicate empathy for the learner's threatened state, "... to aid him linguistically, and then slowly to enable him to arrive at his own increasingly independent language adequacy" (1961, p. 82).

One of the fundamental concepts in the CL approach is that learning is viewed as a whole-person activity, with the learners deeply involved in whatever they intend to master. The basic CL concerns center on the effort to understand the way in which physical, emotional, intellectual, and voluntary functions are all integrated to provide *personalized* and *integrated* learning experiences for the learner. In discussing the significance of an acceptant attitude on the part of the teacher in lessening feelings of fear, anticipation, and discouragement in the students, Rogers (1969, p. 3) says:

> Do such feelings have a right to exist openly in a school setting? It is my thesis that they do. They are related to the person's becoming, to his effective functioning, and to deal understandingly and acceptantly with such feelings has a definite relationship to the learning of long division or the geography of Pakistan.

In summary, coupling Curran's whole-person approach to education and Rogers's humanistic view with the psychosocial nature of adolescents seems to yield a wholly compatible approach to foreign language instruction.

Related Research on Counseling-Learning

The CL approach has been studied under various circumstances. La Farga (1966) conducted an experiment in which members of a group learning four foreign languages (French, German, Spanish, and Italian) were studied under group counseling conditions. After a nine-month period, students in the experimental group acquired almost as much language competence in all four languages as the control group did in one language. The experiment also showed evidence of increased positive self-regard among experimental group members.

Begin (1971) investigated the evaluative and emotional factors of a group of U. S. college students learning French in Quebec, Canada. Nine English-speaking subjects volunteered for this experiment for a period of six weeks. In addition to linguistic variables, motivation, anomie, and evaluations of French Canada were measured as affective variables. The analysis of the data indicated that (1) the CL group obtained as much French as the control group in the skills of auditory comprehension, speaking, and reading comprehension; (2) the CL group ($t = 2.06$), in contrast to the control group ($t = 0.35$), showed a positive change in motivation to learning French ($p < 0.05$); and (3) the CL group developed a more positive emotional attitude toward French Canada (+ 8.2) than did the control group (+ 3.2).

Begin (1971) comments on the significant positive changes in the experimental group by saying, "We think that the experimental subjects became more positively motivated because they were provided with emotional support and with the opportunity for personal evaluation of their learning experience" (p. 50).

Bardin's (1971) research was conducted around task-oriented counseling experiences for slow-learning third graders. The purpose of the study was to see if "learning readiness" would contribute to a more positive self-image and thus aid learning. The learners were put in a supportive counseling atmosphere, and success-oriented programing was

utilized. The findings revealed a statistically significant difference in favor of the counseled group.

Gallagher (1973) conducted an experiment to evaluate the Counseling-Learning approach to foreign language instruction in high school as compared to a traditional approach in terms of language achievement, personal orientation, and change in attitude toward foreign language learning. A unique aspect of this study was that the experimental group experienced simultaneous exposure to both Spanish and German while the control group had exposure to either Spanish or German only. The language achievement was measured in two areas: (1) cognitive language skills—reading comprehension and knowledge of grammar—and (2) practical language skills—listening and speaking. The analysis and data indicated that there was no significant difference in gain between the experimental and the control group with regard to cognitive language skills. For practical language skills, however, the experimental group surpassed the comparison group in listening and speaking skills in each target language. Moreover, the experimental group showed a gain in the inner-directed scale ($p < 0.01$), whereas the control group showed a slight decrease. Finally, the experimental group also showed a greater positive attitude change toward foreign language learning than the control group ($p < 0.05$).

Thus, CL/CLL shows important results in many areas. It is interesting, however, that the technique has not been probed for use with adolescents. It was the aim of the present project to begin such probing.

The Project

The project was a collaborative venture between The Ohio State University Foreign Language Education Program and the Columbus Public Schools. The CL/CLL sessions took place at Mifflin International Middle School.

As one of the Columbus Public Schools' twenty-six middle schools, Mifflin's academic program follows the Graded Course of Study used in all of the district's schools. A unique feature of Mifflin, however, is its focus on international topics across the curriculum: reading, language arts, math, science, social studies, health, and the unified arts (physical education, art, and vocal and instrumental music). Teachers at all grade levels—sixth, seventh, and eighth—tie their individual coursework

together under common schoolwide themes throughout the school year, such as "interdependence," "diversity," "change," and "power." Supplementing the coursework are field trips, guest speakers, and other activities that enable students to explore the arts, food, history, and other cultural aspects of the world community. In addition, every student at Mifflin International has the opportunity to study Chinese, French, German, Japanese, or Spanish. Mifflin has 587 students in grades six (213), seven (180), and eight (194).

Activities: Teaching Japanese in the Counseling-Learning Approach

For this project, 30 sixth-grade students of Japanese, out of a total of 80 students in the Japanese program, participated. The CL sessions were conducted one hour every week from January through June of 1989.

One of the basic ingredients for actualizing the CL approach is to bring "personal" qualities to the teacher-learner relationships and to learning activities. In order to establish a "personal" atmosphere in teaching Japanese to a group of middle school students at the Mifflin International School, five interrelated strategies were employed: Learner-initiated conversation, pronunciation practice with the "human computer," games, Japanese cultural activities, and a reflection period.

Learner-Initiated Conversation. The learners were seated in a circle with a tape recorder in the center. The teacher-counselor remained outside the circle in order not to interfere with the group dynamics. The teacher-counselor's role was to provide a clear procedural statement, necessary linguistic information upon the learners' request, and maximum security for the learners. A conversation usually took five to ten minutes. When a learner said something in English, that utterance was translated into Japanese (the target language) by the teacher-counselor. The learner then repeated the Japanese translation into a tape recorder. By the end of the five-minute conversation, there was recorded material in which the learners were speaking in Japanese. The teacher-counselor played back the tape and went over the conversation sentence by sentence. As the learners heard their own sentences, they translated them back into English. The conversation was then transcribed phonetically onto a transparency, and the teacher-counselor elicited the learners' hypotheses about salient characteristics of the Japanese language.

Pronunciation Practice with the Human Computer. The concept of the "human computer" is based on combining the best characteristics of human and machine. One of the great advantages of a machine, for example, is that it can tirelessly repeat material as many times as the learner needs to hear it. Lacking in the machine, however, are the human qualities of warmth and the understanding attitude that a teacher in a classroom might convey. Thus the human computer is a combination of the depersonalized quality of a machine with the sensitivity of a human, offering a native speaker's linguistic as well as sociolinguistic competence. The human computer provides an informational relationship between a teacher and a learner; the human computer (the teacher) has control over the knowledge that the learner needs (vocabulary, pronunciation, grammatical structures, idioms, and so on); the "computer" simply puts itself at the service of learners, who might otherwise fear that, as they reach out for this knowledge, they will be hurt or humiliated.

In practicing pronunciation, for example, the teacher gave the student the following instructions: "I am your Japanese computer. This computer is programed to give you information only in Japanese; however, it understands both Japanese and English, so if you would like to check a particular sound, phrase, or whole sentence with the computer, you can give the data either in English or in Japanese. The computer will keep giving you the data as long as you are saying the words, phrases, or sentences. The computer will stop as soon as you indicate by your silence that you have the information you need. Instead of typing on the keyboard, simply feed the data into the computer by speaking."

Games. Games were used to review material from previous lessons. They were intended not only to facilitate the internalizing process but also to encourage peer learning and foster a sense of community. For card games, for example, the class was divided into small groups. The teacher-counselor explained the rules of the game and set the time limit at the beginning. She also made herself available as a resource person. Two popular games were "Concentration Game" and "Go Sashimi" (Japanese raw fish). Another popular game was "Telephone," which encouraged the students' attentive listening skills and careful pronunciation in communication.

Introducing Japanese Culture. The teacher-counselor introduced aspects of Japanese culture through songs, origami (paper folding), and

videotapes. The class was also visited by a Honda of America employee who talked about cross-cultural experiences between Americans and Japanese working at the Honda plant in nearby Marysville, Ohio.

Reflection Period. To close each day's activities, five or ten minutes were designated for a reflection period. During this period, the teacher-counselor assumed the role of a group counselor. The learners were encouraged to talk openly in English about their reactions to the class and to the language. The teacher-counselor listened with interest, occasionally summarizing what the learner had just said, verifying for herself and for the learner that she was getting the same picture that the learner had in mind. This activity provided a channel of communication and was crucial in strengthening working relationships not only between the teacher and learners, but also among the learners.

Evaluation: Adolescents' Reflections after Six Months

Six months after the start of the project, 10 of the students who participated were interviewed by research associates. The questions posed concerned (1) the study of Japanese in general and (2) the Counseling-Learning approach. The following is a transcription of some of the students' observations.

The Study of Japanese in General

Interviewer: Can you tell me why we need to keep the Japanese program in the school, and what you liked about it?

S1: I feel that it's worthwhile to learn Japanese because if you get a job in the future, you know, a job, then, and your boss speaks Japanese you can know what they're saying.

S2: Well, not many people are learning Japanese or Chinese or stuff like that and so we're like the hope for the future.

S3: A lot of them [friends] are learning Spanish and French, and then when you say something to them in Japanese, they think it's pretty neat because they don't.

Interviewer: Do you ever play with Japanese children outside of school?

S1: Yeah. At my dad's office there's lots of Japanese people and sometimes he makes me talk to them.

S2: We went to a Japanese restaurant and looked at the menu and I could actually tell what it said. That was really nice to know what it said.

The Counseling-Learning Approach

Interviewer: Can you say more about the specific activities you did with Dr. K [counselor]?

S4: We learned the numbers, and she had a story to go with it so it was easier to learn, and it's easier to say in your head.

Interviewer: Had you learned to count before?

S5: No. Well, actually, we had numbers, but we didn't learn them.

S6: I think we liked Dr. K like when we did body parts she brought in a stuffed animal and . . .

S4: (Interrupt) So see that makes it more funner.

Interviewer: Does it have to be fun to learn?

S6: It's more than having a person go like, "This is my leg"—It's like, this is how you say "leg" in Japanese, and that's boring. It's more fun to do it like Dr. K did. Your teeth is in your mouth and when you say "ha ha" you probably think of teeth. That made it fun.

Interviewer: What did you like about Dr. K?

S7: She made it more interesting. Like you want to learn instead of just sitting there.

Interviewer: Can someone tell me about the game "Telephone"?

S8: It teaches you how to pronounce better, 'cause if you do it wrong it's wrong all the way around. You had to tell the other person how to say it. In other words, to win the game you had to learn to pronounce it.

Interviewer: What would you say to someone who said "I hate Japanese; I would never want to learn it"?

S9: I'd say, try it. You never know unless you try.

S10: Yeah, encourage people, that's the point. I mean if you just say Japanese, that sounds boring but if you encourage them to just try it they might like it.

Interviewer: When this is over, are you all going to give up the study of Japanese?

S9: No way. I want to get down deeper into it.

S10: I want to go to Japan.

Interviewer: Final words of wisdom for future generations? Like, if you should recommend Japanese.

S1: I think I might recommend to take Japanese for the challenge of it. It's harder than something like French, like we have to learn the symbols like Hiragana and Katakana. But it's really fun.

S10: If people think that Japanese is boring, they might not have tried it or anything like that. They should try it because people are going to have to know Japanese in the future because we're going to be trading more and more with Japan, and someone's gonna need to know the language.

Conclusion

Striking the optimal balance between control and freedom in teaching is perhaps one of the most challenging tasks for many teachers, particularly at the middle school level. Too much control in a classroom will stifle adolescents' spontaneity and creativity, while allowing too much freedom can result in chaos and eventually cause resentment in them.

The Counseling-Learning approach incorporates both teacher control and student freedom in foreign language learning. Teacher control is needed to provide clear structuring statements in the classroom in order to avoid unnecessary confusion among students and to direct their attention to shared goals. In the Counseling-Learning approach, the teacher control is a priority for students to fully practice their freedom to learn. Thus, students begin to realize that their freedom in learning is enhanced by knowing the "rules of the game." In other words, the learners' freedom presupposes their willingness to take responsibility in learning.

The comments from the students at Mifflin International reveal that they had fun while they were learning—a childlike motivation. At the same time, they reported on their future "adult" roles with pride and self-esteem. While sustained research is needed, this project suggests that an application of CL/CLL to the middle school level *does* enhance students' interest and motivation in learning a foreign language.

Note

1. For further information, contact Dr. Keiko Samimy, Ohio State University, College of Education, Columbus, OH 43210.

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6
Staff Development for the FLES Teacher: Networking to Make It Happen

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Foreign language educators and advocates across the country agree that foreign language in the elementary school (FLES) is an issue of the nineties. More specifically, states and communities have defined FLES as a priority and are now concerned with topics such as content-based instruction, articulation, and teacher training. Inservice education is a key component to making it happen.[2]

This paper will examine the use of inservice education and ways that a school system can network in order to provide rich and diverse staff development to enhance FLES programs. One school district in North Carolina will be highlighted in this article; other districts across the state have similar offerings for staff development.

What Do We Know about Inservice Education?

In order to plan effective inservice education, it is helpful to build on what we already know. Showers, Joyce, and Bennett (1987) examined thirty years of research on staff development. Their review of nearly two hundred research studies netted the following synthesis:

1. What the teacher *thinks* about teaching determines what the teacher *does* when teaching. Therefore, when training teachers,

we must provide more than "going-through-the-motions" of teaching.

2. Almost all teachers can take useful information back to their classrooms when their training includes four parts: (a) presentation of theory, (b) demonstration of the new strategy, (c) initial practice in the workshop, and (d) prompt feedback about their efforts.
3. Teachers are likely to keep and use new strategies and concepts if they receive coaching (either expert or peer) while they are first trying out the new ideas in their classroom.
4. Competent teachers with high self-esteem usually benefit more from training than do their less competent, less confident colleagues.
5. Flexibility in thinking helps teachers learn new skills and incorporate them into their repertoires of methods.
6. Individual teaching styles and value orientations do not often affect teachers' abilities to learn from staff development.
7. A basic level of knowledge or skill in a new approach is necessary before teachers can adopt and accept the ideas.
8. Initial enthusiasm for training is reassuring to the organizers but has relatively little influence upon learning.
9. It does not seem to matter where or when training is held, nor does it really matter what the role of the trainer is (administrator, teacher, or professor). What *does* matter is the training design.
10. Similarly, the effects of training do not depend on whether teachers organize and direct the program, although social cohesion and shared understanding do facilitate teachers' willingness to try out new ideas. (p. 79)

Keeping the above principles in mind can assist staff development planners.

Staff development has been critical for FLES in North Carolina. School districts are in the process of implementing state-mandated foreign language in the elementary school, and colleges and universities are also in the process of having their elementary school foreign language teacher-training programs developed and approved. While universities are receiving that approval, quality inservice education in a variety of forms

and from a variety of sources has been essential for training the FLES teachers. Staff development offerings have been provided by the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, teachers and administrators of the local school districts, colleges and universities, state foreign language organizations, and academic alliances.

North Carolina has 134 school districts, of which the Wake County School District (Raleigh) is the second-largest. The district comprises 53 nonmagnet elementary schools serving over 25,000 children.[3] Wake County implemented the North Carolina state-mandated FLES program in kindergarten and the first grade in 1988–1989. The district hired 17 FLES teachers to instruct Spanish for twenty minutes twice weekly to 147 sections of kindergarten, 4 sections of kindergarten and first grade combined, 146 sections of first grade, and 5 sections of a combined first and second grade. The teachers came from a variety of preparations: 7 had secondary certificates in Spanish, 1 was middle-school-certified in Spanish, 1 held a Special Education/Spanish certificate, 1 was middle-school-certified in math with an endorsement in Spanish, 4 had elementary certificates with a background in Spanish, and 3 had no teaching certificate but held bachelor's degrees in other disciplines (e.g., science) and had native or near-native proficiency in the language. Many of those with certificates were licensed to teach in a variety of additional areas as well. Inservice was to be the key to bringing together this diverse and talented group of teachers.

Planning for Inservice

Keeping the findings of Showers, Joyce, and Bennett (1987) in mind, the Wake County elementary foreign language program specialist planned for a full year of inservice education. First, he arranged for the FLES teachers to be released from teaching on Mondays for the entire school year for staff development. Also, FLES Spanish instruction did not begin until six weeks into the fall semester. The time thus set aside was totally devoted to inservice training.

A state-endorsed committee composed of FLES teachers, public school foreign language supervisors, university teacher trainers, and North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction personnel developed over a one-year period the requirements for a new K–12 foreign

language teaching certificate. The group identified twenty-two competencies that every newly certified foreign language teacher would have to demonstrate (see Appendix). Based on these twenty-two competencies and the backgrounds of the newly hired FLES teachers, Wake County's elementary foreign language program specialist devised over the summer a flexible calendar of suggested workshops and other inservice ideas before the teachers arrived in August.[4] The teachers were encouraged throughout the year to make suggestions for additional topics to be covered or concerns that they felt needed to be addressed.

The Year-Long Inservice Program

Observations, Preteaching, and Building Community

Of primary concern to all the teachers when they arrived in August was "what do we teach and how do we teach it?" The elementary foreign language program specialist decided that it was crucial for the language teachers to see FLES classes in action, as well as to become familiar with how a typical elementary classroom and school operate. Therefore, the first training revolved around visitations to FLES classrooms in neighboring communities where FLES had already been implemented. An exchange of materials between the school districts and reciprocal visits ensued from those early observations. The new FLES teachers also observed regular K–1 classroom teachers. Each FLES teacher made approximately six full-day visits, arranged by either the elementary foreign language coordinator or the FLES teacher, from mid-August through the end of September.

During those first six weeks of school, the teachers not only observed but also practiced teaching. (Prior to being hired to teach Spanish FLES, none of the teachers had taught a foreign language in the elementary school.) The elementary foreign language program specialist arranged for them to teach in a local preschool, as well as to substitute-teach in several of the magnet schools in Raleigh.

Also on the early agenda was the need to develop a sense of community among the group; success for the FLES program depended on a number of factors, not the least of which was the teachers' ability to work harmoniously. One technique used for building cooperation and cohesiveness was "didactic activities." Didactic activities are interactive

assignments where usually two or four people work cooperatively to share information, answer questions, or solve problems. For example, the Wake County elementary school Spanish teachers shared with one another their completions of the sentence, "I am happiest when . . ." The partners then shared what they learned about their colleague to a larger group. In addition to participating in didactic activities, the FLES teachers shared information from their classroom observations and teaching, and critiqued one another during peer teaching opportunities.

Workshops and Presentations

FLES teachers attended a variety of workshops geared to their needs. In August, the state foreign language consultant visited the teachers for a half-day; he gave a presentation on the North Carolina foreign language teacher competencies and the teacher certification process they would need to follow in order to receive a K–12 certificate.[3]

The elementary foreign language program specialist felt it was important that the Wake County FLES teachers see themselves in the context of the rest of the state in order to help put the Wake County program in perspective. Therefore, another county's foreign language coordinator was invited to talk in detail about what was happening with FLES in her county. Also, the state department's coordinator of second languages discussed the state's Basic Education Program (North Carolina's educational reform movement) and presented in general terms what was happening across the state in elementary foreign language education.

Midway through the second semester, the teachers took part in two full-day workshops dealing with child development, first and second language acquisition, and the history of FLES. Teacher trainers gave these workshops, designing them to build on the practical experiences the FLES teachers had already had over the past seven months.

At the end of the school year, a one-day workshop, also given by teacher trainers, afforded the opportunity to FLES teachers and the magnet school teachers each to understand the role of the other. In the morning, didactic activities helped build a sense of community; in the afternoon, the group leaders guided the participants to work cooperatively on a revised philosophy and program development for foreign languages in Wake County.

Conferences

The FLES teachers attended two major conferences during the year. In the fall, they took part in the Foreign Language Association of North Carolina's two-day annual conference. At least seven sessions during the two days dealt directly with FLES issues and ideas. In the spring, the State Department of Public Instruction organized a conference on articulation. FLES practitioners and advocates from across the state and country came together for two days to share ideas on articulation, staff development, materials, and program design and development.

Curriculum and Materials Development

Administrators of the district chose to have a content-based FLES curriculum. Beyond that decision, no other steps had been taken to write curriculum or develop materials before the arrival of the teachers in August. During August and September, along with their visitations and practice teaching, the FLES teachers familiarized themselves with the regular K–1 curriculum. They also examined the Ferndale (Michigan) Schools' plan.[6] Ultimately, they chose to teach concepts that would parallel and reinforce the regular classroom curriculum offered in the Wake County Schools.

When the time came to construct curriculum and create activities and materials, each of the seventeen teachers brought different areas of expertise to the process. For example, the four elementary-certified teachers helped with age-appropriate activities to teach Spanish across the curriculum. The FLES teacher certified in special education acted as consultant when issues were raised concerning how to deal with the needs of the special students. (All children, including those determined to be at risk, study Spanish in Wake County.) The artists of the group also rose to the occasion, sharing their talents with their colleagues.

Once they began instruction, several of the FLES teachers arranged to have their classes videotaped. Then, on Monday mornings, the group watched and commented on their peers' teaching. As the semester progressed, more and more of the teachers felt comfortable being taped and sharing the experience with the group. Monday mornings were also devoted to a "swap shop" of ideas and talk about what they would be teaching the following week. Monday afternoons were devoted to materials development. The Monday workdays were held at the Wake

County Teachers' Resource Center, audiovisual equipment, paper, and photocopying and laminating machines were some of the items available for use at this location.

Other Staff Development Projects

North Carolina and the satellite broadcasting company that serves the state's schools received a major grant to produce a twenty-one-hour FLES methods course. During the summer of 1989, the Wake County teachers, as well as teachers across the country, were able to take advantage of the interactive video class. The Wake County program specialist was one of the originators of the concept, and several Wake County teachers were featured on the programs.

The FLES educators were not exclusively on the receiving end of the staff development; one Wake County teacher was a leader at a state-sponsored one-week retreat for principals. The retreat was designed to explain early foreign language teaching and learning to elementary school principals in a relaxed setting. (Such retreats have been offered for two years and are considered highly successful; the principals leave with either a new or renewed respect and support for early language study.)

The FLES teachers also took advantage of staff development programs that were offered to other groups in the school district. For example, the elementary school Spanish teachers attended a full-day kindergarten study conference that had been arranged for the regular classroom teachers.

Still other programs included a visit by a representative from the North Carolina World Center, who made a presentation to the FLES teachers about making puppets and offered ideas for using puppets in class. Area academic alliances, composed of te[illegible]s from kindergarten through university level, met on a monthly basis [illegible]s and concerns were shared on a variety of topics dealing with [illegible]ching of foreign languages at all levels.

Ideas Generated

Besides the curriculum, materials, and sense of group that developed over the course of the year, a number of other ideas and additional projects were generated. One topic discussed was the issue of public relations, not only with parents and the community, but also with elementary school

staff and administrators. The FLES teachers and the elementary foreign language program specialist put on special assemblies and programs in the schools, made presentations before PTA and school board meetings, contacted the newspaper with information about the FLES program, and produced an eight-minute professional-quality video describing the Wake County FLES program. (Testimonials from regular classroom teachers, administrators, and parents are a part of this promotional video.[7])

For additional reinforcement, the teachers organized foreign language media centers in the elementary school libraries. Planned for the future are programs that will air on a local access cable channel that will review and recombine material already presented to the children. The series is slated to begin during the summer of 1990. It will use a content-based approach that will enhance the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction's guidelines of what to teach in the regular kindergarten through second-grade curriculum.

Evaluation of Staff Development

As noted above, the twenty-two North Carolina foreign language teaching competencies (Appendix) had been used as guidelines for planning the inservice education program. Twenty of the twenty-two competencies were addressed at least once at some point during the school year.

Informally measured, the overall attitude and feeling of the FLES teachers and administrators was that the inservice education over the year was highly successful and beneficial. The FLES teachers were also asked to complete a formal program evaluation at the end of the school year. This questionnaire asked about all aspects of the FLES teacher's job; seven of the fifteen questions dealt either directly or indirectly with the inservice education of the district. The survey had a 100 percent return rate. In summary, the results were that the FLES teachers felt very positive about the staff development program provided them during the 1988–1989 school year. (For example, all seventeen either "strongly agreed" or "agreed" that they felt good about their teaching; and fifteen of the seventeen FLES teachers reported that their job was rewarding.) When asked if the inservice programs were informative and useful for the job, sixteen of the seventeen either "strongly agreed" or "agreed" that they were.

Problems with the staff development program included time and space difficulties. Most of the individuals involved agreed that not starting to teach until six weeks into the fall semester was too much of a delay: the FLES teachers became eager to do what they had been hired to do. Four weeks would have been better.

Second, it turned out that Monday was not the best day of the week to hold the inservice education, for the elementary schools of Wake County had staff meetings on Mondays. The FLES teachers needed to attend those meetings to demonstrate that they were an integral (and not a "special" or "extra") part of the school.

Finding a space where the FLES teachers could hold the staff development sessions proved to be a problem at times. Normally, the group met at the Teachers' Resource Center. Many times, though, rooms at this facility and others in the district were overbooked, causing a last-minute scramble for a meeting location.

Evaluation of this project would not be complete without checking if Showers, Joyce, and Bennett's (1987) findings had been put to use. First, teachers were given numerous experiences in which they could feel positive about teaching and about themselves; the results of the year-end survey regarding teacher satisfaction prove that this goal was achieved. Second, the training sessions were carefully designed; the program specialist provided detailed information in advance of presentations so that speakers and presenters could best meet the needs of the teachers. In the sessions, the teachers were provided the theory of a concept, given a demonstration and opportunity to practice, and furnished with prompt feedback. Expert or peer coaching was constant throughout the year. The teachers were encouraged and rewarded for being flexible, and all knowledge was presented at a basic level to ensure understanding and ownership.

Conclusions

Well-planned inservice is an important component to any school system. In North Carolina, inservice education has been paramount to defining the issues in FLES and then making high-quality programs happen. One school system in the state networked resources from the state, universities, school district, and community for inservice education. The district created a program based on previous research on staff

development, the state's twenty-two competencies for foreign language teachers, and the individual needs of the teachers. Both teachers and administrators gave the program high marks. Without a doubt, inservice education programs such as the one featured here can have a major impact on the success of new and existing FLES programs.

Notes

1. For further information, please contact Dr. Audrey L. Heining-Boynton, School of Education, Peabody Hall, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC 27599-3500, phone: (919) 966-3291.
2. According to the *Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors* (Arizona: Oryx Press, 1987), "inservice education" is defined as courses and programs designed to provide employees staff growth in job-related competencies or skills, often sponsored by employers, usually at the professional level. "Staff development" means employer-sponsored activities or provisions such as release time and tuition grants through which existing personnel renew or acquire skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to job or personal development. In this article, "inservice education" and "staff development" will be used synonymously.
3. An elective program of elementary foreign languages has been ongoing since 1982. This program includes 12 gifted and talented magnet schools and 2 international magnet schools. Also, the author wishes to acknowledge contributions to this article by Tim Hart, Foreign Language Program Specialist for the Wake County Public Schools.
4. Wake County will fund staff development only if it directly pertains to teaching behaviors. The schools provided approximately $3500 for FLES staff development during the 1988–1989 school year. Also, school districts could apply to the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction for staff development funds. Wake County FLES received monies from this source as well.
5. No North Carolina college or university had an approved foreign language teacher training program in place in 1988 to grant the K–12 foreign language teaching certificate. Therefore, FLES teachers are working under a variety of certificates with several options provided by the state department to formalize the certificate.
6. For information regarding the Ferndale FLES program, contact Lynn Haire, Foreign Language Coordinator, Ferndale Public Schools, 881 Pinecrest, Ferndale, Michigan 48220.
7. This video can be ordered by writing Mr. Tim Hart, Foreign Language Program Specialist, Wake County Schools, 3600 Wake Forest Rd., P.O. Box 28041, Raleigh, NC 27611.

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Appendix:
Foreign Language Teacher Competencies K-12
(developed by the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction)

A. Academic Skills and Knowledge of the Target Culture
   1. Listen
   2. Speak
   3. Read
   4. Write
   5. Phonetics/sound system
   6. Comparative linguistics
   7. Culture and civilization

B. Professional Skills and Knowledge
   1. Language acquisition of children and adults
   2. Methodologies
   3. Application of methodologies
   4. Materials
   5. Evaluation
   6. History of foreign language education
   7. Curriculum development
   8. K–12 instructional environment

C. Professional Growth
   1. Knowledge of trends, issues, research
   2. Active use of the four language skills
   3. Active use of teaching skills
   4. Continued academic development
   5. Continued professional development
   6. Knowledge of availability and location of resources
   7. Promotion of cooperation

7
To Articulate or Not to Articulate: Is That the Question?

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Consider the following scene: It is four in the afternoon. A secondary school Spanish teacher is seated at her desk, gathering materials for her next day's lesson. In walks one of her students, who graduated with honors last spring. He is eager to talk about college life, but hesitates when he comes to his Spanish course. He can't hurt Ms. Jones's feelings, but he doesn't feel he was adequately prepared in high school for all the verb tenses he must now handle and the literature he must analyze in his present college program.

Once again, the problem of articulation rears its ugly head. Ms. Jones and the university have not communicated to each other what it is that they "do" in their classrooms. Ms. Jones feels that she has prepared her student well for the university, when in fact this may not be the case. Once again, the suppositions and expectations of the secondary teacher and the university professor appear to be at odds.

The Issues of Articulation

Problems of articulation between high school and college foreign language programs are not new; indeed, the literature of our profession twenty years ago contained numerous articles seeking to address the problem. What may be new, however, are the attempts now being made by school-college collaboratives in many states to deal with the issues. While these issues are certainly generic in nature, the focus presented here is related to the discussions held at the 1989 Second Annual University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Foreign Language Conference on Articulation concerning curriculum, staff, and testing and on the subsequent recommendations made to the profession in the state of Wisconsin, bearing in mind a review of previous approaches to the issues.

In the literature on articulation, we find many authors who have made focal points of various concerns. Lafayette's (1980) notion of internal strength achieved through the articulation of objectives, learning activities, and end-of-course tests recurs throughout the literature. His idea of achieving sequential strength through the use of minimum competencies also recurred. Concerns similar to Warriner's (1977) six factors that contribute to the problem of articulation also surfaced regularly. (The Warriner points are the following: unjustifiably fast pacing for language teaching; unrealistic expectations for high school graduates on the part of college instructors; lack of coordination between skill objectives and actual practice; too little emphasis placed on the speaking skill at any level; diverse and in some cases haphazard college placement procedures; lack of proper attention to the problem of articulation by the profession.)

Warriner's first point—unjustifiably fast-paced instruction—had been isolated by the California Study of Foreign Language Articulation (Schwartz, 1985) as a major articulation problem from the student perspective. Placement procedures also entered into the findings of the California study on articulation. In another discussion of this perennial problem, Normand (1980) had directly and clearly pointed out that the relationship between secondary and college level foreign language faculties leaves much to be desired, and that opportunities for organized, collegial communication must be increased.

Mosher (1989), in describing one state's efforts to address these kinds of issues, states that

> In its revision of curriculum, . . . secondary teachers were given a general orientation to proficiency-oriented goal/outcome statements and had the opportunity to actually work on such outcome statements in small groups. The final version of the outcome statements will provide secondary teachers with meaningful goals, and college teachers will have a much clearer idea of what students can be expected to be able to do in foreign language previously studied at the beginning of their college/university studies. (pp. 159–60)

How much of the articulation problem is due to lack of collaboration between secondary and postsecondary levels? Omaggio (1986) proposes

> Rather than trying to achieve some kind of curricular fit within an idealized master plan for the entire curriculum, a second approach would begin by setting goals for the first course and continuing course by course until realistic goals have been established for the whole sequence. (p. 409)

Notable, among others, is the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction (DPI) Guide (Grittner, 1985), which has set the goals for the secondary sequence. Can the same be said for the postsecondary level? This appears to be the point of setback.

Muyskens and Berger (1982) set forth an interesting model for developing articulation. They state

> It seems apparent that better communication, access to more information, increased training, and recognition of achievement can only lead to better programs and greater self-esteem and respect for the individuals involved. As a result, the transition from high school to college language courses will be smoother for those students. (p. 92)

The history of the articulation issue cannot be ignored. Spencer and Flanigher (1967), for example, consider foreign language study to be cumulative so that "As the student of a language moves from high school to college . . . he should not be required to repeat work that he has already accomplished, nor should he be confronted with course work that requires a greater proficiency in the language than he has acquired" (p. 331). A more recent attempt to resolve the articulation problem between secondary and university level foreign language is found in the recommendations for high school teaching made by Judith Liskin-Gasparro and June K. Phillips (1986).

By referring to the above-mentioned literature, the Wisconsin conference braced itself to ask new questions for the 1990s articulation problems surrounding the three critical issues of curriculum, staff, and testing.

Articulation and Curriculum Concerns

Just as articulation is necessary between different levels of the language within one institution, it is equally important between secondary schools and institutions of higher learning. If we are to produce citizens who can speak, read, write, and function within a foreign culture, we need a curriculum that reflects this sequence of study with well-articulated stages.

In the past, our elementary and secondary foreign language curricula have varied widely without any real direction. For example, curricula were developed in accordance with textbook material or teacher ability and interest. They might be targeted at college-bound or non-college-bound students, foreign language exploratory and elementary school programs, split-level classes, or bilingual and immersion school programs.

While the schools were developing their curricula in widely varying directions, colleges and universities remained, for the most part, focused on the traditional track of grammar, writing, and literature. Consequently, placing students into appropriate college/university courses became increasingly difficult because of the wide variety of curricula students had encountered at precollege levels.

Then, in the 1980s, the ACTFL Guidelines (1986; see Appendix A) for oral proficiency came into being, and in one state, Wisconsin, the DPI decided to develop a *Guide to Curriculum Planning in Foreign Language* (Grittner, 1985).

After many hours of discussion and inservice activities, the DPI has succeeded in implementing its guidelines. These guidelines have helped many secondary school teachers focus on, for example, developing communicative skills in the curriculum: the guidelines provide clear direction, with specific functions to be achieved and a specific number of hours of study stated for each level. Consequently, the secondary school curriculum has a better articulated scope and sequence with realistic defined outcomes for students at each level.

In response to changes at the secondary level, colleges and universities have begun to reexamine their student placement procedures. Since

communicative skills rather than grammar, reading, and writing are now the main focus of many secondary school programs, postsecondary institutions need to deal with this change in a realistic manner. Some colleges and universities have become familiar with the state guidelines for secondary foreign language programs and are making adjustments in their respective curricula. This kind of cooperation between secondary and college/university language departments is necessary if we are to achieve our goal of preparing our students to be proficient in foreign languages for the twenty-first century.

Articulation and Staff Concerns

The door for communication has been opened several times for dialog between representatives of various University of Wisconsin system schools and representatives of the metropolitan area secondary teachers at the Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Council (UTIC) Conference in Madison, Wisconsin, in the fall of 1985 and the first (1987) and second (1989) University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Foreign Language Conference. The topic of the second, "Toward a Means for Articulation between Secondary and University Foreign Language Instruction: Where Do You Stand?" resulted in a networking system and recommendations, several of which are akin to those set forth by Muyskens and Berger (1982).

One of the recommendations coming out of the 1989 conference was that teaching assistants (TAs) who do not have previous secondary school teaching experience must enroll in a pedagogical course to be taken concurrently with their university teaching. Improving the performance of TAs in the multisection classroom is the topic of an article by Carmen Villegas Rogers (1987), which substantiates the conference recommendation and includes excellent recommendations of its own concerning supervision of TAs and those who do the supervision.

The attempts to solve the problem of articulation in Wisconsin are ongoing. Secondary teachers have the DPI guide to direct them and to indicate to university professors what they should be able to expect. The recommendation is that the university needs to be aware of what its goals are, how these goals mesh with the DPI goals, and subsequently, how awareness of these goals for secondary foreign language faculty is to be achieved. Communication, as Muyskens and Berger (1982) stress, is a goal for us in Wisconsin, whether it be through *The Voice of WAFLT*

(Wisconsin Association of Foreign Language Teachers)[2], undergraduate bulletins describing courses and evaluation processes, a syllabus from classes at different levels, newsletters from language-specific teacher organizations (AATs), workshops, conferences, academic alliances, or personal contacts. These attempts are applicable nationwide. Articulation has also been made more attainable through the existence and use of the ACTFL proficiency guidelines.

Articulation and Testing Concerns

If successful articulation between levels of instruction is defined as the continuous development and improvement of a majority of students passing from one level to the next, then an effective assessment system is one of its critical elements. Such a system includes a coherent set of classroom, placement, and proficiency tests within each major curricular division at the high school or university. Furthermore, each single type of test corresponds as closely as possible to its counterparts at other levels. These tests serve different, yet complementary, purposes.

Proficiency tests are given at key points in the curriculum, at places where students choose to end their foreign language studies, or where students begin a radically different course of study. When appropriately composed, they accurately describe the skills and knowledge acquired to that point. Such tests would include comprehensive doctoral exams, master's exams, undergraduate majors comprehensive exams in language and literature, postrequirement exams, and high school exit exams.

Placement tests are given to students who do not begin a curriculum with its first course. These tests should examine a variety of skills and place students in the course where they will be most fairly challenged. Such tests would include reading comprehension, listening comprehension, and structure at the least, and some form of oral and written assessment where possible.

Classroom tests are tests given regularly during a course. They should accurately measure the immediate content and skills studied while serving a diagnostic purpose and preparing the student for ultimate proficiency testing.

Since each of these tests serves different purposes, each has specific constraints on its composition. Proficiency tests, which describe a person's knowledge and skill and will be used to determine that person's suitability

for a job or further advanced work, must be defined primarily by the characteristics of that next level of use. Placement tests have a more immediate goal—they must locate quickly and effectively the next level of instruction for which the student is prepared. Thus, they are often shorter versions of proficiency tests and their structure is more closely linked to the goals of the curriculum to be entered and the degree of success of students already in it. Classroom tests have an even more immediate purpose—they must determine what students have learned and how they have progressed over a short period of time.

In the perfectly articulated world, every high school and university would teach the same curriculum and use the same tests at the same points, thus always situating students correctly on a continuum. Classroom tests in high school and at the university would be the same, thus making placement tests unnecessary. Moreover, since curricular agreement would imply agreement on the nature of the perfect foreign language learner, only one type of proficiency test would ever be needed.

Since this is not the case, for whatever reasons (some good, some bad), proficiency, placement, and classroom tests can only hope to reflect one another imperfectly, given the different concerns of the institutions that use them. In each separate use, however, they should comprise a consistent series.

For example, for a master's student interested in doing doctoral work at a major research institution, one needs classroom tests that evaluate one's progress in literary analysis, a master's test that does more than describe oral proficiency, and placement tests that enable one to compare the student with other successful doctoral students (e.g., GREs, subject exams). For an undergraduate planning to teach high school, one needs classroom tests that evaluate progress as a teacher and user of the language, a major's exam that does more than assess the ability to read literature, and a placement test that enables one to compare the candidate with other successful teachers currently employed. For a high school student unsure of further use of the language, one needs classroom tests that evaluate progress as a language user, an exit exam that describes what was learned and what can be done with the language, and a placement test that enables comparison with other successful students in the curriculum of the university or college being considered.

Even more important, skills and content-area knowledge must be assessed consistently and precisely. What does an A mean in terms of performance? How are the differences between the class grades (an evaluation of recent work) and proficiency assessment (situating performance within a much larger hierarchy of abilities) made clear? If a grade includes a speaking assessment, what were the evaluative criteria used? What does it mean to say that a particular student reads or writes well? These questions obviously require collaboration between high school and university teachers in the construction of similar classroom and proficiency tests.

The most important step we can make in improving articulation between high school and university programs is the development of an effective placement procedure that gives appropriate weight to the high school curriculum while accurately assessing the likelihood of success in the next curricular division—the university foreign language major.

University and high school colleagues in Wisconsin have recently spent several years addressing this issue. Their collaboration has produced tests in French, German, and Spanish that assess reading comprehension, listening comprehension, and functional grammatical knowledge as skills acquired in high school and essential for success at the university.

The reading and listening comprehension modules involve questions on authentic-language passages and conversations that cover a wide variety of styles, topics, speakers and writers, purposes, lengths, and levels of difficulty. Questions test the decoding of factual information and also require a variety of skills necessary to understand the creation of meaning in larger contexts: analysis, synthesis, inference and deduction, recognition of main ideas or arguments, temporal sequences, point of view, and tone. Questions in these modules encourage thinking and intelligent guessing; for the reading modules, they require skimming and scanning after the initial reading. The grammatical structure module requires students to select the word or phrase that will make the given sentence grammatically correct and meaningful.

These tests have improved our articulation efforts for several reasons: in the first place, they are based in part on the ACTFL Guidelines, which form the basis for the high school state curriculum guide and have begun to affect university curricula, particularly at the first-year level. Secondly, the tests have been correlated to class grades. Third, the tests

measure skills, not content mastery; thus, they recognize the value and requirements of both curricula.

These tests have enabled us in Wisconsin to identify more effectively the course in which high school students should begin their university study. They do not represent another attempt by one curriculum to dictate the content of another, and they are not tied to a specific textbook, style of writing, or grammar sequence. Their development has required high school and university teachers alike to look again at their curricula and pedagogy, and to find new and better ways to collaborate for the ultimate benefit of their students.

Conclusion

By examining the literature on articulation and by discussing the problems articulation poses for curriculum, staff, and testing, the conclusion is made that a well-articulated foreign language curriculum would eliminate some frustrations and anxieties of both students and teachers. To reach this goal involving secondary schools and institutions of higher learning, the following need to be done:

1. The faculties of secondary and postsecondary foreign language departments will need to collaborate in some type of forum each year.
2. A curriculum guide similar to the one for secondary schools will need to be developed for the entry-level courses offered at the colleges/universities.
3. Secondary curricula will need to be more challenging and more academic for those interested in the study of literature.
4. Colleges and universities will need to develop more diverse course offerings to meet the many needs of students.
5. Teacher-training courses will need to stress better language skills and overall teaching methods.

With the number of students now studying foreign languages in the many different curricula, we are hopeful that we can take important steps toward articulated curricula. With people talking to one another at all levels, we cannot help but make improvements that will enhance the quality of our programs.

Notes

1. The conference to which this paper makes reference was held on April 28–29, 1989, and was sponsored by the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee School of Education Outreach. For further information, please contact one of the following people:

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2. *The Voice of WAFLT* is the semiannual publication of the Wisconsin Association of Foreign Language Teachers.

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Appendix: Recommendations

As a result of the deliberations at the Second Annual University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Foreign Language Conference, the following recommendations were presented:

1. That all TAs have previous secondary teaching experience or a pedagogical course to be taken concurrently with their university teaching.
2. That a DPI-type curriculum guide be developed for instructors of foreign languages at all public and private institutions of higher education.
3. That, when feasible, an oral-proficiency-based and culture-based curriculum, to include foreign languages for special purposes, be added to the already existing literature-based curriculum in all public and private institutions of higher education.
4. That the DPI and *Voice of WAFLT* provide general information on all placement tests, on assessment instruments used for placement, and on their respective evaluative scales, and that this information be distributed to all public and private secondary schools, guidance and foreign language departments, and to district administrations.
5. That all institutions of higher education publish in their undergraduate bulletins the criteria used to evaluate previous language experience on the part of incoming students and that this information be distributed to all public and private secondary-school guidance and foreign language departments as well as to district administrators.
6. That the assessment instruments be uniformly administered under optimum testing conditions and with the recommendation that the student review that which he or she has studied prior to the administration of the test.
7. That whenever possible there be *no* combined classes at any level of foreign language instruction in secondary schools.
8. That dialog among K–16 faculty continue through workshops and conferences, Academic Alliances, and/or individually established personal contacts.
9. That a statewide advisory group on articulation be organized through the DPI; the membership is to include language teachers (K–16), public and private, with the recommendation of the professional association (WAFLT) and all private school associations.
10. That an idea-exchange column be established in the *Voice of WAFLT* as a regular feature.
11. That any developments or decisions made with respect to articulation should be published in the *Voice of WAFLT* and presented at the annual convention.

12. a. That each university foreign language department have a resource/contact person who would be willing to come to high schools for presentations

    b. That the resource person at the university level also be able and willing to share reviews/evaluations of textbooks and computer software

13. a. That language departments make available a syllabus of their third and fourth semester classes (Also included should be the goals of the first four semesters, the title of the textbook and other books used in these semesters, and other materials used as an integral part. Suggested procedure: High school teachers could contact the department's resource person for mailing the information.)

    b. That language departments make available the description of the placement test as well as the test results as a feedback for high school teachers

14. a. That colleges and similar institutions develop more interest areas or diversity in courses, e.g., German for science, business, computers; universities should assess and understand the needs of students so that their language departments continue *beyond* the one course required for retroactive credits

    b. That composition and oral courses be developed alongside the literature classes

15. a. That the newsletters from all AATs include more information from language departments, e.g., cultural events, speakers, films that pertain to specific needs

    b. That summer institutes for the southeastern part of Wisconsin, with an equal number of participants from both high schools and universities, be established

8
The Practical Alternative: Testing the Reading Comprehension of Large Numbers of Students with a Multiple-Choice Proficiency Test

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Many foreign language educators feel somewhat uncomfortable discussing testing. Although we recognize the need for testing our students' progress, we do not relish many aspects of the actual process—creating the quiz or test, conducting oral interviews, spending hours anguishing over grades, or watching the disappointed faces of students who are not doing well when we return grades. Yet we are resigned to the fact that testing is a necessary part of any foreign language program. Our goal, then, should be to develop instruments to test our students' proficiency in the four skills as accurately as possible. Given the duties of the K–12 teacher and the college or university professor, devising good weekly quizzes and tests is a formidable task.

This paper offers a practical way for beleaguered teachers of large classes to test their students' proficiency level in reading comprehension—

the multiple-choice proficiency test. After briefly reviewing proficiency testing within the field of foreign language education, the article will outline a series of steps that any foreign language professional can use to develop multiple-choice proficiency tests of reading comprehension. A general knowledge of the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) *Skill Level Descriptions for Reading* (see Appendix B), the ILR Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Provisional Proficiency Guidelines (see Appendix A), and the ACTFL OPI is assumed. The ILR scale will be used to estimate the proficiency levels of the reading passages discussed; the ACTFL scale, however, works equally well for the purpose of developing a multiple-choice proficiency test of reading comprehension.

Proficiency Testing: An Overview

The ILR scale of language proficiency is in four skill ranges from 0+ to 5, with 0+ designating memorized proficiency and 5, functionally native proficiency. According to Lowe (1984, p. 33), the scale was first introduced thirty years ago for use in the foreign language training and testing community of the federal government. Currently, the U.S. Department of Defense's Defense Language Institute, the U.S. Department of State's Foreign Service Institute (FSI), the Central Intelligence Agency, the Federal Bureau of Investigation, the National Security Agency, and the Peace Corps, among others, apply the ILR scale when conducting OPIs and developing tests.

The ILR scale and OPI have roots in the "Absolute Proficiency Rating" (APR) system described by Clark (1972, pp. 121–124). Sometimes called the FSI interview, the APR is an FSI testing procedure consisting of a face-to-face interview between two native or near-native testers and the examinee. The two testers converse with the examinee for approximately thirty minutes on diverse concrete and abstract topics. In the interview, the testers also play roles in real-life contexts. At the end of the interview, the testers use a scale from 1 to 5—with 1 referring to elementary proficiency and 5 native or bilingual proficiency—to give one holistic score for speaking and listening.

In 1981, ACTFL and the Educational Testing Service (ETS) used the ILR scale to construct the current ACTFL scale. The two scales differ in

how they assess examinee performance at the lower levels of proficiency: the ACTFL scale evaluates performance at the beginning stages of language learning more closely than does the ILR scale (see Appendix C). In the ACTFL scale, "Novice Mid" is the first level at which the student is able to operate in the target language, although in only a very limited capacity. The highest level of proficiency attainable is the "Superior" rating. According to Liskin-Gasparro (1983), the scales are commensurate, i.e., scores obtained from interviews rated on the ACTFL scale correlate with the major levels on the ILR scale.

A review of the professional literature about the ILR scale and the OPI reveals a great number of articles about the speaking skill (Clark, 1978, contains several. See also Jones, 1975; Lowe and Liskin-Gasparro, 1982). In contrast, relatively few studies deal specifically with reading and listening (Byrnes, 1984; Canale, 1984; Larson and Jones, 1983; Phillips, 1984). As Lowe (1978) observes: "Historically, the ILR has devoted most of its attention to speaking, some attention to reading, and much less to listening and writing" (p. 13). A recent study by Lange and Lowe (1988) indicates that the reading proficiency standard, which can be applied to either the ACTFL or the ILR scale, can be learned and passages can be ranked and rated accordingly.

Writing the Multiple-Choice Proficiency Test for Reading Comprehension

Step 1: Familiarizing Oneself with the ILR or the ACTFL Scale

The first step in developing an accurate quiz or test of reading proficiency is to attain a working knowledge of either the ILR or the ACTFL scale. The primary way to attain this working knowledge is to become an oral proficiency tester certified by either ACTFL or the federal government. ILR proficiency testing workshops are usually restricted to federal government personnel, but ACTFL regularly offers oral proficiency workshops, at sites across the country, to all foreign language teachers. The intensive four-day ACTFL workshop prepares participants to conduct the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (ACTFL OPI). The ACTFL OPI differs from the ILR OPI in the type of rating scale used: the ACTFL OPI applies the ACTFL scale, while the ILR OPI applies the ILR scale. Although the ACTFL OPI workshop concentrates specifically on speak-

ing as a skill, with some study and practice the workshop graduate can successfully apply the knowledge learned in the speaking skill workshop to reading.

Foreign language teachers who are not certified proficiency testers can study the ILR Language Skill Level Descriptions for reading or the ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines for reading, both of which include the respective scales. They can then select authentic reading passages and attempt to rate the proficiency levels of the passages using either of the two scales.

Step 2: Adopting the Single-Passage, Single-Item Test Design

The Defense Language Institute (DLI), a facility of the federal government dedicated to instruction and research in federal language education, develops standardized tests of foreign language proficiency called the Defense Language Institute Proficiency Tests (DLPTs). The first three generations of DLPTs—I, II, and III—adopted the traditional single-passage, multiple-item test design. The "item" is the test question about some aspect of the reading passage. In this test design, a reading passage is followed by several (typically five) items about the passage.

The latest generation of DLPTs—the DLPT IV—has a *single*-passage, *single*-item test design. In this test design, a reading passage is followed by *only one* item about the passage. The single-passage, single-item test design has several distinct advantages over the single-passage, multiple-item test design. *First*, each passage in the single-passage, single-item test design has only one item. Typically, a proficiency-oriented item on a reading passage requires the examinee to understand the essence, not the detail, of the passage. (A discrete-point item focusing on just one detail such as a name or date does not adequately test the examinee's general proficiency level. Even native speakers cannot readily retrieve detailed information about a passage that they have just read.) A discrete-point item should not appear in a proficiency test unless the purpose of the item is to assess the examinee's ability to find a detail in the passage. At Level 0, such items are the norm; at Level 1 and above, however, items testing a detail are rare.

In figure 8-1, a 0+ (all further references to levels are ILR) reading passage in Tagalog, the principal language of the Philippines, illustrates the idea.

From the classified section of a newspaper.

WANTED: Laba Linis 700 Luto 1,300 Yaya 950 Waires 600
86780 7314272 7118820 783531 Boy[2] (30)

Question: According to this ad, what is the salary of a babysitter?
A. 950
B. 600
C. 700
D. 1,300

The translation is
WANTED: Laundress/Cleaning Woman 700 Cook 1,300 Babysitter 950 Waitress 600
86780 7314272 7118820 783531 Boy

The correct answer is, therefore, A.

Figure 8-1. Reading passage and item in Tagalog

Second, single-passage, single-item test design does not tax the student's memory in listening comprehension tests. For example, in the conventional single-passage, multiple-item test of listening comprehension, the examinee hears the passage once (perhaps twice if the passage is at a lower level of proficiency). Then the examinee must answer several items, typically five, based on the content of the passage. The items in tests of this type often focus on information of a detailed nature. Even native speakers cannot accurately recall all information heard in radio broadcasts, television news, overheard conversation, etc. To ask the examinee to do so, therefore, does not produce valid results.

Third, single-passage, single-item test design simplifies the item analysis procedures used in the development of standardized tests.

Typically, a multiple-choice test item includes an *orientation* (an introduction that "sets the stage" for the passage), a *passage* (or *stimulus*), a *stem* (test problem), and *options* (possible responses A, B, C, and D). Only the test passage is in the target language; the other parts of the item are in English.

English is used instead of the target language for all parts of the test item except the passage because the goal of a foreign language proficiency test of reading is to evaluate the examinee's ability to comprehend reading material in the target language. The examinee's ability level can be determined most clearly when the passage is in the target language and the stem or test problem is stated in the examinee's native language. When all

parts of a test item are in the target language, one cannot determine with any certainty whether examinees who did not answer a test item correctly failed to do so because they did not understand the passage, the stem or test problem, the options (responses A, B, C, and D), or the entire test item. Using the target language for only the passage eliminates this problem and provides a more direct measure of the examinee's ability to comprehend the target language passage itself.

Step 3: Selecting Authentic Reading Passages Using the ILR or the ACTFL Scale

To develop a proficiency-oriented quiz or test in reading comprehension, it is critical to use authentic passages. Only authentic passages will provide the real-life context so essential to proficiency growth. Reading passages should be in the target language. Materials of various types and styles (e.g., news, literature, etc.) on a wide range of topics can serve as sources for authentic reading passages (see Appendix A). Of course, for students at the lower levels of the ILR and ACTFL scales (i.e., 0+ to 1 of the ILR scale), passages will generally be limited to signs, newspaper announcements, advertisements, bulletin board information, instructions and directions, memoranda, invitations, and tourist information such as travel brochures.

The length of the passage should be appropriate to the level. At DLI, passages to be included in the DLPT IV are never longer than 120 words; a passage at Level 0+ may typically contain as few as two or as many as twenty words. (The testing division at DLI does not set a minimum or maximum number of words for a reading passage at a specific proficiency level; the natural tendency is, however, for the length of a reading passage to increase as the proficiency level rises.)

The passage should not be highly technical or easily dated. It should reflect a representative sample of the types of reading materials that students are expected to read in real life. The passage should not be edited in any way unless it is too long or contains errors that prevent the reader from understanding the message(s) contained in the passage. If the passage is edited, the end result must be self-contained and well-organized.

It is important to note here that the test writer's initial estimate of the level of a reading passage is *not* final. When the test writer later creates a

multiple-choice item, he or she will assign a holistic, definitive level for both the passage and the item as a unit.

Step 4: Writing the Orientation

The *orientation* is an introduction to the item that "sets the stage" by providing the test taker with information about the setting of the passage. In a reading comprehension quiz or test, the orientation can include source information. (The orientation in the DLPT IVs at DLI is in English and does not exceed twenty words.)

A sample 0+ reading passage in Tagalog with its orientation appears in figure 8-2.

Orientation: *A sign in a building:*

BANYO
(Lalaki)

The translation is

RESTROOM
(Men's)

Figure 8-2. Reading passage in Tagalog

Step 5: Devising the Stem

The *stem* is the question or problem that the examinees must answer about the reading passage. Implicit in the stem is a language task. For example, reading numbers is a language task typical of Level 0+; another language task at this level is reading isolated words and phrases. The tasks for each proficiency level are implicit in the ILR Skill Level Descriptions and ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines.

The stem takes one of two forms: (1) a complete sentence in the form of a question; (2) a partial sentence that forms a declarative sentence with the *key* or correct answer. The stem in the DLPT IVs at DLI is in English and does not exceed twenty words.

The test writer should formulate a stem with a language task at the same level as the level of the vocabulary and structures in the passage. That is, if the test writer assigns Level 0+ to a passage, he or she should

formulate a stem with a 0+ language task. It should be expressed in clear, concise language. It should be stated positively and without absolutist adverbs such as "always," "never," "forever," etc., and without general qualifiers such as "perhaps," "usually," "sometimes," etc. The examinee who understands the passage thoroughly should be able to answer the question without looking at the A, B, C, and D choices. The stem should be stated in such a way that only one correct answer can be selected from among the choices.

A sample of 0+ reading passage in Hebrew with its stem appears in figure 8-3.

From the introduction of an almanac.

ישראל מא עד ת

STEM: What does this section of the almanac contain?

The translation is
Israel from **aleph** to **tav** (i.e., Israel from A to Z)

Figure 8-3. Reading passage and stem in Hebrew

Step 6: Creating the Options

The *options*—A, B, C, D—are the four choices given to the examinee. The options, which appear in English, can be words, phrases, or sentences. The maximum length per option is twenty words. The examinee must pick the correct answer from the options. The correct option is the *key;* the incorrect options are called *distractors.*

Hooshmand (1988) suggests that when formulating the options, test writers ask themselves the following questions:

1. Does each option follow grammatically and logically from the stem?
2. Are the options of approximately equal length and complexity?

3. Are the options equally concrete or abstract?
4. Is the item free of synonymous distractors?
5. Is there clearly only one best answer?
6. Are all distractors plausible?

A sample Level 1 reading item in Hebrew appears in figure 8-4.

An advertisement in a catalog:

גולד דב

תל־אביב
דרך שלמה 139
טלפון 822601

- טלוויזיות
- מכונות כביסה
- תנורי בישול ואפיה
- מקררי אמקור
- רשמי קול ורדיו
- כל אביזרי חשמל

STEM: What does Mr. Gold's store sell?
A. Electrical appliances and equipment
B. Heavy machinery for construction
C. Gardening and landscaping equipment
D. Sporting goods and equipment

The translation is
Gold Dov
Tel-Aviv
Derech Shlomo Road 139
Telephone 822601
- Televisions
- Washing machines
- Cooking and baking stoves and ovens
- Amcor refrigerators

Figure 8-4. Reading passage and item in Hebrew—Final version[4]

When devising a correct answer or *key* for a passage like the one above, the test writer may need to categorize some of the elements. For example, the key for the item in figure 8-4 reads "(A) Electrical appliances and equipment," although these words do not appear in the test passage itself.

Step 7: Checking and Revising the Item

It is imperative that the test writer review the item for flaws in logic, grammar, and format. The test writer must also assure that the level of the language task implicit in the stem is the same as the level of the vocabulary and structures in the passage. For example, if the test writer assigns Level 0+ to a passage, he or she must formulate a stem with a 0+ language task. The item in figure 8-4, which appears here in its final form, underwent extensive revision because of an imbalance between the level of the task in the stem and the level of the vocabulary and structures in the passage. Compare the sample Level 1 item in its final form in figure 8-4 with the same item in its preliminary form in figure 8-5.

Information from a catalog:

גולד דב

תל־אביב
דרך שלמה 139
טלפון 822601

- טלוויזיות
- מכונות כביסה
- תנורי בישול ואפיה
- מקררי אמקור
- רשמי קול ורדיו
- כל אביזרי חשמל

STEM: What does Mr. Gold's store sell?
A. Television sets, radios, and electrical accessories
B. Washing machines and phonographs
C. Power drills, refrigerators, and electrical cords
D. Various amplifiers and sound filters

Figure 8-5. Reading passage and item in Hebrew—Preliminary version

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In the preliminary form of the orientation, the examinee was given the general information on the source of the passage—"Information from a catalog." As the purpose of the orientation is to provide the examinee with an introduction to the context of the passage, the orientation was rewritten to include more explicit information—"An advertisement in a catalog."

The preliminary stem, which obliges the examinee to read the entire passage in order to answer the question, was used unchanged as the final

stem. The preliminary key and distractors, however, required substantial revision. The preliminary key—"(A) Television sets, radios, and electrical accessories"—did not adequately answer the stem "What does Mr. Gold's store sell?" In addition to "television sets, radios, and electrical accessories," Mr. Gold's store sells washing machines, cooking and baking stoves and ovens, refrigerators, and tape recorders. Theoretically, the examinee who understands the passage could answer the test question with *all* the appliances and equipment listed in the advertisement; however, the preliminary key referred only to "television sets, radios, and electrical accessories." The preliminary key was, therefore, incomplete.

The preliminary key and distractors had other flaws. They were written to complement a stem with a language task at Level 0+—reading isolated words and phrases. Distractor B, for example, asks the examinee to recognize the words "washing machines" from the list in the advertisement and to determine that "phonographs" is not in the list. Testing the examinee's understanding of isolated words and phrases is more typical for a 0+ passage and stem than for a 1 to high 1 passage and stem. Distractors C and D, in addition to testing the examinee's understanding of isolated words and phrases, contain vocabulary that is 1+ or 2 in level. (Consider, for example, "power drills," "amplifiers," and "sound filters.")

Because of the kinds of problems described above, it is critical that the test writer check each item with several other teachers of the language who have some knowledge of the ILR or ACTFL scale. Ideally, the test writer could validate the multiple-choice items by asking a group of thirty or more students to take the test as a noncredit exercise. Then it would be possible to study how the students responded to each multiple-choice item, e.g., what percentages picked the key and each of the distractors. This information could be useful if the test writer should ever want to devise a quasi-standardized test for a determined group of students at a specific point in the course or program.

Conclusion

Most foreign language educators recognize testing as a necessary component of the teaching-learning process. Devising quizzes and tests that accurately measure the examinee's proficiency level in the four skills can be an overwhelming challenge. The multiple-choice format, properly used, ensures objectivity and ease in test-item correction. The teacher who

follows the seven steps described above will not only produce a professional quiz or test of proficiency in reading comprehension; he or she will also be able to dedicate the time saved in grading to improving teaching methodology, establishing greater rapport with the students, and discovering other ways of creating the best possible learning environment.

Notes

1. For further information, please contact Commandant, The Defense Language Institute, ACTFL ES, ET (Dr. Campbell), Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006, (408) 647-5391/5458.
2. Note that it is customary to find words in English interspersed in Tagalog texts. "Boy," a typical nickname in the Philippines, is the first name of the person whom the reader is to contact about the job position.
3. The passage is a reproduction of a sign seen in Manila, the Philippines.
4. One could argue that the stem contains a 0+ language task—reading isolated words and phrases; however, the vocabulary in the reading passage is at Level 1 to high 1. The resulting imbalance between language task and vocabulary in the passage forces the test writer to exploit the other language tasks at a 1 to high 1 that are implicit in the stem—(1) reading and understanding "known language elements that have been recombined in new ways to achieve different meanings at a similar level of simplicity" and (2) reading "simple language containing only the highest frequency structural patterns and vocabulary, including shared international vocabulary items and cognates."

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Appendix:
Defense Language Institute Item Writers Workshop

TEXT TYPE BY ILR LEVEL; READING

TEXT TYPE	ILR LEVELS			
	1	2	3	4
travel brochures	x			
bulletin board information	x			
invitations	x			
tourist information	x			
instructions	x	x	x	x
newspaper announcements	x	x		
memoranda	x	x		
directions	x	x		
advertisements	x	x	x	
texts for mid-elementary native speaker		x		
narrative reporting (accidents, robberies, interest stories)		x		
TV/film reviews		x	x	
special areas for nonspecialist			x	
material in one's professional field			x	
opinion pieces			x	x
editorials			x	x
commentary			x	x
literary pieces			x	x
"think" pieces				x

9
Global Assessment of Writing Proficiency

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"Practice makes perfect." Nowhere does this saying have greater validity than in the foreign language classroom, especially when it comes to developing students' writing skills. At once, however, teachers are faced with two questions. First, how are we going to motivate our students to write often and meaningfully? Second, how do we find the time in our already overcrowded schedules to correct the resulting compositions and return them to our students quickly? The first of these questions has been addressed elsewhere (Reschke, 1987 and 1989); this article addresses the second.

Once students are motivated to write eagerly, the teacher can increase the number of writing assignments two-, three-, or even fourfold. To provide the necessary feedback quickly, however, the classroom teacher must find an alternative to the usual time-consuming method of reading carefully, correcting the errors, and grading. This article describes one such alternative: a global evaluation and grading system using a holistic approach. Although the specific examples presented in this article relate to the teaching of German, teachers of any language can adapt the techniques illustrated here to the teaching of their own languages.

The system for evaluating writing skills proposed here is rapid and effective. Although it should not replace the standard error correction and evaluation method for written work, it can be used for 50 percent of all compositions assigned during a semester, especially those of 200 words or more.

Description of Procedure

A holistic assessment and grading procedure is already used in the College Board's Advanced Placement Program (AP), where it allows hundreds of teachers of English and foreign languages to cope efficiently and accurately with the tens of thousands of student essays written yearly by AP candidates. The procedure is basically as follows: each student composition is evaluated globally according to a set of scales that takes into consideration the following elements:

1. Proper and appropriate use of vocabulary
2. Effective use of grammar
3. Clarity and structure of the composition
4. Effective and appropriate use of idioms
5. Overall style

Two aspects in a global assessment of *any* linguistic performance, regardless of modality, are especially important in assessing writing skills. First, the focus of the evaluation shifts from the usual preoccupation with student errors to what the student does *well* and *correctly*. Second, the degree to which the student *succeeds* in expressing and communicating his or her ideas plays a central role in the evaluation process.

Over the past six years, this writer has modified the College Board's nine-point AP scale slightly for use by foreign language classroom teachers; the range of scores from 1 to 9 has been kept intact, but the upper half of the scale has been extended to include a 4 as an acceptable score (see table 9-1).[2] The revised scale has been repeatedly field-tested in a number of German classrooms.

The basic scale in table 9-1, with its minimal descriptions, would have very limited value without a more complete description of each of the five proficiency levels it identifies. This is the purpose and function of the articulated scale (table 9-2). The two versions of the scale complement each other, with the basic scale (frequently labeled "the gut scale" by insiders) serving both as an initial and as a final check in the evaluation process.

The final "additional comments" in table 9-2 apply especially in cases where a student has learned the rudiments and formal aspects of the target

Table 9-1
Holistic Essay Grading Scale
Basic Scale—Range and Minimal Description

Upper Half

9 Demonstrates superior writing skills
8 _____
7 Demonstrates strong writing skills
6 _____
5 Demonstrates competent writing skills
4 _____

Lower Half

3 Suggests incompetent writing skills
2 _____
1 Demonstrates incompetent writing skills

Adapted by Beschke from the College Board's Advanced Placement Program in German

To interpret table 9-1, one must be aware that the various points on the basic scale are *not* points per se, but more properly definitions of upper and lower boundaries of one of five proficiency levels. The nine-point holistic evaluation and grading scale proposed here correlates fairly closely with the nine-point ACTFL/ETS writing proficiency scale (see Appendix A) and also with similar writing assessment scales currently in use in such states as Wisconsin, Nebraska, Minnesota, Texas, and California. In contrast, the relationship between the five proficiency levels of the proposed holistic scale and the range of the traditional letter grades A through F is only superficial.

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language informally "on the street," either by living in the target language country for a number of years or by hearing the target language at home, where one or both parents are native speakers of the language.

Each of the five level descriptions of the articulated scale contains some key words and phrases that are of particular importance to the evaluator-teacher. For range 9–8 these include *demonstrates superiority; outstanding* control; few *significant* errors; demonstrates *broad* command; *obvious* fluency. For range 7–6 the key phrases are *demonstrates strong command* of the target language; *some* grammatical inaccuracies and errors; *good, not* always *accurate*, use of *vocabulary* and *idioms*. The key phrases for range 5–4 include *demonstrates good to acceptable* use . . . ; *suggests* the candidate is basically competent; *serious* grammatical and syntactic errors; *less* impressive range of vocabulary and idioms; *recurring doubts* about competence.

Table 9-2

Holistic Essay Grading Scale: Articulated Scale

Upper-Half Responses

9 to 8 Demonstrates superiority through outstanding control of the language with regard to syntax, grammar, idiomatic usage, and vocabulary. The student makes few significant errors and demonstrates a broad command of the language and obvious fluency. The difference between an 8 and a 9 is one of degree.

7 to 6 Demonstrates strong command of the target language with, however, some grammatical inaccuracies and errors and some awkwardness of expression. Shows good, although not always accurate, use of vocabulary and idioms. Errors do *not* detract from the generally clear demonstration of competence. The difference between a 6 and a 7 is one of degree (quality, fluency).

5 to 4 Demonstrates good to acceptable use of the language and suggests that the candidate is basically competent. The student makes occasional serious grammatical and syntactic errors and has a less impressive range of vocabulary and idioms than a student in the category above. There are occasional signs of fluency in the written work. Recurring doubt about the competence of a student lowers the score to a 4.

Lower-Half Responses

3 to 2 Weak use of the language suggests incompetence. The composition displays numerous errors and frequently uses anglicisms and/or English syntax and thought patterns. The composition contains sentences that paraphrase or essentially repeat what has been stated earlier, lists activities and places or things in series without giving reasons, and/or forces interpretation on the part of the reader. The lack of an occasional redeeming feature, such as the correct use of advanced grammatical constructions and vocabulary, tends to lower the score to a 2. (Getting a simple sentence grammatically correct now and then is *not* a sufficiently redeeming feature.)

1 Clear demonstration of incompetence. The student has little or no sense of syntax and has few vocabulary resources. The content of the student's written work is essentially incomprehensible Germanized English.

Additional Comments:

a. One point is *subtracted* if the essay or composition does not address the assigned topic.

b. One point is *subtracted* if the essay or composition is poorly organized *or* is substantially shorter than called for (i.e., less than 90 percent of the assigned length).

c. One point is *added* if the essay or composition is especially well organized *and* well written.

d. No more than two points are deducted from any essay or composition.

e. In case of doubt about what score to assign to an essay or composition (a high 6/low 7 or a strong 7/weak 8), the spelling is carefully looked at. If it is obviously phonetic and poor (many errors), the lower score is assigned.

Adapted by Reschke from the College Board's Advanced Placement Program in German

Descriptions for the lower half of the scale also include a number of key words and phrases to which the evaluator must be alert. For range 3–2, for example, these are *weak* use of the language; *suggests* incompetence; *frequently* uses anglicisms and/or English syntax and thought patterns; sentences *paraphrase* or *essentially repeat; lists activities* and *places/things* in *series, without* giving reasons; *forces interpretation; lack* of an *occasional redeeming feature*. And finally, range 1 presents its special problems: *clear demonstration* of incompetence; *little* or *no* sense of *syntax; few vocabulary resources; essentially Germanized English*.

When grading a student's composition holistically, the classroom teacher does not correct or identify any errors found. Instead, the teacher writes a short evaluative comment at the end of the composition that addresses the student's success in handling the written assignment in terms of content and structure. If desired, the teacher may also, in summary fashion, identify the most frequent and most serious grammatical errors the student made, especially if those errors impede communication. Finally, the teacher writes a letter grade on the holistically graded composition, preferably a split grade reflecting both the effectiveness of the content/communication and the proper use of grammar, to indicate the student's achievement in carrying out the assigned task.

Application

To illustrate the suggested procedure, the grading scales shown in tables 9-1 and 9-2 will now be applied to several student essays. (Some of these have been truncated, but all are in "pristine" condition, i.e., except for shortening they are printed here just as the students wrote them.) The evaluator should read each essay quickly to determine at once, globally, whether it belongs in the upper or lower half of the basic scale and, more precisely, whether it belongs in the 5–4 to 9–8 or the 3–2 range. Only then should the evaluator substantiate the first impression by applying the more detailed criteria and descriptions of the articulated scale to the composition.

The assignment for the first theme was to imagine what would happen "if" (exhibit 9-1). This type of writing assignment can be used for students at any level, i.e., as early as the second semester of a beginning (college) course (after the students have learned the rudiments of the

Exhibit 9-1
Wenn ich ein Gespent wäre . . .

Wenn ich ein Gespent wäre, könnte ich überall fliegen. Ich könnte unter dem Boden, durch den Himmel, in Ihrer Suppe, oder über Ihrem Kopf fliegen, und mit dieser Macht könnte ich allerlei Komisches machen. Aber was würde ich eigentlich machen?

Ich ginge zum Gott des Schlafes, der Morpheus genannt wird. Er wohnt in einer dunklen Höhle, die liegt fünfzig Kilometer unter dem Boden. Hier flüstern einige tiefe Flüsse, worin dicke, langsame Fische mit großen, geschlossenen Augen schwimmen. An der Wände hängt warmes, grünes Moos. Hier ginge ich, um verschiedene Träume zu stehlen. Ich würde die Höhle des Morpheus vorsichtig eintreten, ohne ihn aufzuwecken. Neben ihm liegen alle seinen Träume auf dem Boden. Sie wären schmutzig, weil Morpheus keine Arbeit macht. Er schläft immer. Mit diesen neuen Träumen flöge ich nach der Städte, und störte ich gute, unschuldige Leute während der stillen Nacht.

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subjunctive), and also for the most advanced students, who can be asked to support and defend, not merely state, their opinions about a social, economic, or political issue or problem.

Exhibit 9-1, which clearly deals creatively with the topic in the realm of the imagination, was rated a 5. The writer uses throughout some interesting structures and vocabulary: *Ich ginge zum Gott des Schlafes, der Morpheus genannt wird;* and *Hier flüstern einige tiefe Flüsse, worin dicke, langsame Fische mit großen, geschlossenen Augen schwimmen.* Although the writing is by no means free of grammatical or vocabulary errors, the question is, to what extent do these errors impede the communication process? Our examination suggests that the errors are not substantial enough to create recurring doubts about the writer's basic competence in the target language. This writing sample demonstrates, indeed, "good to acceptable use of the language and suggests that the candidate is basically competent," as the articulated scale describes the third of its five proficiency levels.

For exhibit 9-2 the writer's task was to select an inanimate object and then personify it. Exhibit 9-2 was rated a 2. The use of the target language is weak; the errors in syntax, grammar, and vocabulary are so numerous that they suggest that the student's writing skills are still at the "incompe-

Exhibit 9-2
Ein Schuh

Ich bin ein Schuh. Ich kamm von einem Kaufhaus in der Schuabteilung. Ich kaufte bei ein jungen Mann. Ich bin einer roten Schuh, und ich bin einer Laufschuh. Ich zog einem Fuß jeden Morgen an. Und ich nahm einen Fuß nach dem Tag aus. Ich gehe in die Stadt jeden Mittag und gehe über die Steinstraße. Meine Schuhsohle forderte auf der Steinstraße aus. Nach dem Tag kaufe ich Maßeschuh. Ich habe an die Wand geworfen, oder unter das Bett. Ich will nach der Woche in die Waschmaschine waschen.

Ich wanderte durch die Park in der Nacht. Ich gehe auf das Gras und im Winter gehe ich auf die Schneeeiche. Im Winter kriege ich nach dem Schritt die Kälte. Wann gehe ich in die Park, ich sehe viele Schuh und Laufschuh. Wann kriege ich das Alter, ich habe weggeworfen.

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tent" level. Some of the sentences are incomprehensible, such as *Meine Shuhsohle forderte auf der Straße aus*, and *Ich zog einem Fuß jeden Morgen an;* other sentences can only be understood if the reader translates them back into English *(Ich will nach der Woche in die Waschenmaschine waschen).* However, a few of the expressions the writer uses warrant a glimmer of hope, such as *Ich wanderte . . . in der Nacht*, or perhaps even *Im Winter kriege ich . . . die Kälte.* Are these expressions adequate examples of "an occasional redeeming feature," as table 9-2 requires for a 3 rating? They are not; hence the 2 rating.

The third sample essay comes from a class that had read and discussed a short story by Theo Schmich, „Nichts zu machen," in which the topic is military toys and their effect on children. The general topic addressed in exhibit 9-3 is whether toys of this type should be illegal to sell. Exhibit 9-3 was rated a 6. Although it repeatedly demonstrates strong writing skills, it contains a number of awkward expressions *(Um die Effekte der Waffe beizubringen)* and basic grammatical errors that impinge upon and weaken its overall quality and disrupt the easy flow of communication that one expects from a 7.

This easier flow and greater linguistic fluency *is* evident, however, in exhibit 9-4. The topic is once again "What if . . . ?"

Exhibit 9-3
Eine wichtige Warnung

„Bang! Bang! Du bist tot!", schrie das Kind, als er durch das Zimmer rannte.

„Hör auf!", verlangte seine Mutter. „Laß mich sehen, was in deiner Hand ist, weil wenn du ein Spielzeuggewehr hätte, müste ich dich bestrafen. Dein Vater und ich haben dir tausendmal gesagt, daß du mit keinen Spielzeugwaffen spielen kannst."

„Aber Mutter. Ich habe keine Spielzeuggewehr.", winselte das Kind. „Es ist nur eine Banane, die ich mir vorstelle, ein Gewehr zu sein."

Die Mutter lächelte ein Lächeln eines Verlierers. Wann wird das Kind lernen, daß er mit keinen Spielzeuggewehr spielen sollte? Ihrer Meinung nach sollte der Verkauf von Spielzeuggewehre und anderem militärischen Spielzeug gesetzlich verboten werden. Ihre Gründe sind persönlich. Ihr Kind spielt mit diesen Spielzeugen und es gefällt ihr nicht. Es gefällt anderen Leuten auch nicht, aber die Antwort ist nicht, der Verkauf von Spielzeugwaffen zu verbieten. Wie es in dieser Geschichte steht, können die Kinder sich alles vorstellen, ein Gewehr zu sein. Die Eltern müssen den Kindern den Ernst von den Effekten der Waffen beibringen. Wenn die Kinder frühzeitig sind, dann werden sie vielliicht mit keinen Spielzeugwaffen spielen.

Um die Effekte der Waffen beizubringen, muß man zeigen, daß es eine Unterschieden zwischen fernsehentot und echter Tod gibt. Man ist fernsehentot, wenn man im Fernsehen stirbt und die nächste Woche in einem anderen Programm zurückauftritt. Ein echter Tod ist kein Fernsehenprogram. Man kann nie zurückkommen. Die Eltern sollten das Betrag vom Fernsehen regulieren, das die Kinder aussehen. Sie sollten auch die Filme regulieren, die die Kinder aussehen. . . .

Exhibit 9-4 belongs at the upper end of the proficiency scale. Perhaps it does not clearly demonstrate the superiority in the use and control of the target language that warrants a rating of 9, but it does demonstrate a strong command of the language, especially in paragraphs 2 and 4. It also demonstrates excellent control over grammar, syntax, vocabulary, and idioms, a greater control of these elements than one would expect from a 7, but perhaps not quite the "outstanding control" one expects from a 9; it does, after all, contain some basic grammatical errors that impede the easy flow of communication. That does not mean that an essay rated a 9 must be flawless; but the description of the articulated scale for a 9

Exhibit 9-4
Der Mensch ist ein Blinder, der vom Sehen Träumt

In unserer Gesellschaft ließe es sich besser leben, wenn alle Menschen blind wären. Es gäbe dadurch viele Vorteile. Viele Faktoren die heutzutage wichtig sind, wären dann nebensächlich. Zum Beispiel, die Leute würden nicht nach ihre Hautfarbe beurteilt. Das Sprichwort „Kleider machen Leute" würde total wegfallen. Das Aussehen des Menschens wäre dadurch auch nicht so bedeutend.

Wenn alle Menschen blind wären, täte die Hautfarbe keinen Unterschied machen. Die Leute würden gleichberechtigt behandelt und nicht nach ihrer Hautfarbe. Die Minderheit hätte hiermit vielleicht mehr Gelegenheit, Arbeit zu bekommen und auch mehr Aufstiegsmöglichkeiten in dem Beruf. Es würde sich nicht nur im Berufsleben zeigen, sondern auch im Alltag würden die Leute sich besser verstehen und besser miteinander auskommen. Die Persönlichkeit würde den ersten Eindruck machen und nicht die Hautfarbe. Leute würden versuchen, mehr in einer Gesellschaft zusammenzuwohnen und nicht rassenmäßig aufgeteilt sein. Viele Stereotypen würden auch verschwinden. Die Blinden könnten nämlich sich kein Vorurteil von ihren Mitmenschen machen, ohne sie näher zu kennen.

Für blinde Leute wäre die Kleidung eines Menschens auch nicht mehr bedeutend. Es gibt nämlich viele Personen, die nach der Kleidung urteilen. Zum Beispiel, viele gehen mit der neuesten Mode und haben öfter ausgefallene Sachen an. Wenn sie jemand begegnen, der nicht so modebewußt ist, dann meinen sie, er ist ihnen nicht würdig. Blinde würden die neuesten Moden nicht so wichtig finden.

Das Aussehen eines Menschens wäre für die Blinden auch nicht so maßgebend. Sie würden mehr die Qualitäten eines Menschens schätzen anstatt nur das Äußere. Im Berufsleben wäre es dann viel wichtiger, eine gute Ausbildung und Talent zu haben anstatt nur schön auszusehen. Gutaussehende Leute könnten sich nicht mehr nur auf ihr Aussehen verlassen. Sie müßten auch hart arbeiten wie die anderen, um weiterzukommen.

Aus diesen Gründen finde ich, daß es sich in unserer Gesellschaft viel besser leben ließe, wenn alle Leute blind wären.

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contains the key phrase "*demonstrates superiority* through *outstanding control.*" This essay does not quite meet that standard; hence, it was rated an 8.

The final two essays illustrate essentially the same level of proficiency in the target language, yet each does so in a very different way. In exhibit

Exhibit 9-5
Die Steintreppe

Ich bin eine Steintreppe vor einem Haus im London, und ich bin fast achtzig Jahre alt. Ich bin mit Zement und Silbersand gebaut. Obwohl ich sehr stark bin, eine meiner Ecken verkrümelt ist. Meine Seiten sind veraltet und abgestumpft, weil so viele Leute auf mir getreten sind. Auf einer den Stufen liegt eine Fußdecke. Eine Spinne wohnt darunter. Pflanzen zweigen in der Nähe von mir, die im Frühling blühen.

Wann Sommer kommt, dann bin ich froh. Das Wetter ist warm, es gibt Sprühregen und manchmals scheint die Sonne! Leute treten mit Sandalen oder barfuß auf meine Stufen. Im Winter ist es kalt. Ich bin mit Schnee und Eis bedeckt, und manchmal ist einen Unfall geschehen. Die Leute tragen Stiefel. Stiefel tun mir weh.

Ich kenne die Leute, die im Hause wohnen an ihren Unterbekleidung! Ich bemerke, wie die Moden wechseln. Mädchen finden es modisch, Hosen zu tragen. Natürlich sehe ich auch Strümpfe, Unterröcke, und gekräuselte Unterhosen! Ich weiß, was ein schottische Mann unter sein Schottenröckchen trägt!

Ich hoffe, daß ich hier bleiben werde. Ich will das Jahr 2000 erfahren.

9-5, an inanimate object (the front steps of a house in London) is personified; in exhibit 9-6, the writer pretends to be a famous person.

The author of exhibit 9-5 displays a light, even humorous touch, especially in the final paragraph; exhibit 9-6, too, is not without humor, but the humor is of a different nature—more indirect, more subtle and self-depreciating. Both essays were rated at the 5–4 level, the first a strong 4 and the second a weak 5. For all practical purposes, however, both essays illustrate in different ways similar linguistic strengths. *Leute treten mit Sandalen oder barfuß auf meine Stufen* is a very clear, yet relatively simple, sentence; exhibit 9-6 contains a number of simple sentences, too, yet its author is always attempting to say a little more, to use a more complex construction. For example: *Die Schreibmaschine ist mir sehr wichtig, aber manchmal hasse ich diese dumme Machine*, or *Jetzt gefallen mir die drei Seiten nicht, die ich vor zwei Stunden geschrieben habe*.

One ought never compare student essays when grading holistically, but rather assess the linguistic performance of each student independently.

Exhibit 9-6
Tageslauf eines Schriftstellers

Ich bin ein bekannter Schriftsteller. Viele Romane habe ich angefangen, aber nur einige habe ich beendet. Heute habe ich noch einen angefangenen Roman in den Papierkorb geworfen. Hier will ich Ihnen erklären, wie schwer es ist, Romane zu schreiben.

Mein typische Tag fängt um neun Uhr morgens an. Ich habe kein Büro; gottseidank brauche ich jeden Tag nicht in die Stadt zu fahren. Meine Frau bringt mir Frühstück und die Zeitung. Ich esse, dann gehe ich in meinem Arbeitszimmer, wo meine Maschine steht. Die Schreibmaschine ist mir sehr wichtig, aber manchmal hasse ich diese dumme Maschine! Da sitze ich, vor der Schreibmaschine, und ich denke. Und denke. Und denke. Dann bekomme ich plötzlich eine Idee. Schreibe schnell ich mit der Maschine eine, zwei, drei Seiten. Dann halte ich plötzlich. Ich brauche noch eine Idee. Ich denke zehn Minuten, zwanzig Minuten, eine Stunde . . . aber neue Ideen kommen nicht. Und jetzt ist es Mittag, und meine Frau ruft mich zum Mittagessen. Sie kocht sehr gut, und wir essen und reden bis ein Uhr.

Ich gehe wieder in meinen Arbeitszimmer. Jetzt gefallen mir die drei Seiten nicht, die ich vor zwei Stunden geschrieben habe. Ich werfe sie in den Papierkorb. Aber ich habe endlich eine neue, schöne Idee! Ja, es ist sehr, sehr gut. Ich schreibe viele Seiten, und ich antworte nicht, als meine Frau mich zum Abendessen ruft. Eine gute Idee ist zu wichtig. Ich schreibe bis neun oder zehn Uhr. Wann ich fertig bin, esse ich ein kaltes Abendessen. Diesen Tag habe ich achtundzwanzig Seiten geschrieben. Ich sollte zufrieden sein. Aber ich habe Angst vor Morgen. Vielleicht scheint morgen die achtundzwanzig Seiten nicht so gut zu sein! Ich mag sie auch in den Papierkorb werfen.

Also, Sie können jetzt verstehen, warum ich nur drei Romane geschrieben habe! Ja, ich finde es sehr schwer, ein Schriftsteller zu sein. Aber es gefällt mir viel, wann Leute meine Bücher kaufen und lesen. Ich weiss, ich werde immer Schriftsteller sein.

This cardinal rule is violated here for a purpose: to illustrate that two very different essays can be rated similarly. What might have lowered the score of exhibit 9-5 a little is the relatively high frequency of errors in a fairly short text. These errors raise small, but recurring, doubts about the writer's basic competence in such areas as the proper use of cases, conjunctions, and adjective endings.

Another rule in holistic grading is this: when in doubt whether to assign a higher or a lower rating to a writing sample, reread the articulated

scale descriptions for both levels carefully, then consult the basic or "gut" scale. If still in doubt, assign the *lower* rating.

One could argue that the structure of many sentences in exhibit 9-6 is very simple and that the writer uses predominantly the present tense (rarely the present perfect or narrative past). On the ACTFL/ETS Proficiency Scale (see Appendix A), this would identify the writer as a definite *intermediate* candidate, a strong *intermediate-mid* perhaps, but not really an *intermediate-high*. By comparison, the author of exhibit 9-5, evaluated for the moment according to ACTFL/ETS proficiency criteria, occasionally reaches up to the *intermediate-high* level, although the effort is neither sustained nor frequent.

Conclusion

Most teachers agree that our foreign language students, beginning at the elementary level, need to write more to perfect their writing skills in the target language. Realistically, however, classroom teachers do not have the time to correct in great detail as many papers as students should write. A proposed solution to this dilemma is for classroom teachers to double or triple the amount of writing they assign at every level and, at the same time, to employ a holistic, global assessment and evaluation procedure for up to 50 percent of the written work produced during a semester or term. *Übung macht den Meister.* Practice on the part of the students, not necessarily meticulous correction of every composition by the teacher, makes perfect.

Notes

1. For further information, please contact Claus Reschke, Department of German, University of Houston, Houston, TX 77203-3786, telephone 713-749-2159.
2. The Advanced Placement Program also uses another scale, ranging from 1 through 15. The nine-point scale seems preferable, however, to the more fine-tuned fifteen-point scale (used primarily in English) in assessing and evaluating the written work of foreign language students.

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10
The Roman Empire from Cradle to Graves: Using *I, Claudius* in the Latin Language or Roman Civilization Course

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It is a feeling that many classicists must have had at one time or another. In the midst of discussing Latin grammar or Roman history, the teacher is reminded of a story about one of the early emperors. The anecdote is too tempting to resist: not only does it relate perfectly to the day's lesson, but also it shatters yet another misconception about life in ancient Rome. And so, the teacher begins to recount the incident, eagerly awaiting the class's response. Then, just as interest in the story is building and the underlying lesson is about to be made, the teacher is struck by an unsettling thought: "Wait a minute . . . did that *really* happen or was that merely something that I read in Robert Graves?"

There is, indeed, an occasional blurring of the lines between where Tacitus and Suetonius end and where *I, Claudius* and *Claudius the God* begin. That, of course, is part of the fun. Graves's books, and the BBC/PBS series based upon them,[2] have effectively recreated early imperial Rome with all its intrigues, its corruption, and its scintillating gossip. For Latin students, the world according to Graves is bound to be a fascinating

one. The student who is weary of encountering yet another campaign by Caesar in his *Gallic Wars* or yet another tribute by Cicero to his own consulate will discover in *I, Claudius* a different, and quite unexpected, view of Rome.

The books and the television series present the Romans as recognizably flawed human beings; their passions, faults, and follies, while extreme, are not unlike our own. What those characters *are* unlike, however, are the stolid moralists who, under the name of "Romans," still inhabit many textbooks. The fictional world of the novels can thus serve to counterbalance the simplistic world of the school text. Students who read *I, Claudius* will emerge from the Latin course with a view of ancient Roman life that is more accurate and less romantic than the one they held before.

Yet the vivid detail with which Graves has imbued his vision of the ancient world also presents a challenge to the teacher. If the appeal of *I, Claudius* lies in its ability to combat our stereotypical view of the Romans, the difficulty arises when Graves is almost *too* successful in this role. The motives the author attributes to Claudius himself—as well as to Livia, Augustus, Herod, and many others—while based upon the statements of ancient historians, often go far beyond what is found in primary sources. If this were not the case, Graves would have failed in his duties as a novelist. But since there *is* a great deal of fiction in *I, Claudius*, how are we to evaluate Graves as a *historian?* How, in other words, can we help our students to differentiate between what is gospel and what is Graves? And how, in the end, may we take advantage of the interest our students have in *I, Claudius* and *Claudius the God* without permitting these novels merely to replace one type of misinformation with another?

These are important issues that must be addressed by the Latin teacher before *I, Claudius* or any other historical fiction[3] can be introduced into the Latin classroom. Moreover, the proper role of historical fiction in a language or culture course is an issue that affects teachers of *all* foreign languages, modern as well as ancient. Thus, although the specific instances and examples presented below relate to the teaching of Latin and classical civilization, teachers of modern foreign languages can easily adapt the techniques to the teaching of historically based fiction in their own areas.

Fiction versus History

While many teachers may believe that the mixture of fiction and history in novels such as those by Robert Graves creates an insoluble problem for them, that same combination actually reveals a useful opportunity. For the mere exercise of distinguishing between what is "fact" and what is fiction in *I, Claudius* will help students to review important events from a crucial period in Roman history. More than this, however, the exercises will compel the Latin class to consider how we can *know* what really happened in the distant past and how the rules of evidence may be applied to ancient events. Simply by suggesting that *I, Claudius* should be evaluated differently from an ordinary history book, the teacher will cause the class to consider the nature of history itself.

It may be argued that this matter is far too complex to be discussed in a Latin language or Roman civilization course, especially at the secondary level. But, in fact, it is an issue that must be dealt with, on an almost daily basis, by nearly all Latin teachers. Failure to do so would cause the texts of Caesar, Cicero, and Vergil to become nothing more than examples of stylistic and grammatical principles. To be sure, those authors—like Graves—mingled fact with interpretation. Latin teachers frequently urge their classes to be critical, even skeptical, in assessing Caesar's campaigns, the conspiracy of Catiline, or the principate of Augustus. An author's assertions, we often tell our students, must always be checked against the accounts appearing in other texts, especially when there are several other primary sources. Only then will a class be able to distinguish between a statement of fact and an author's interpretation of that fact.

Developing these skills of literary analysis and criticism is thus an important part of every Latin course, whether it is taught at the secondary or at the collegiate level. But it is also possible to develop those very same skills through a critical reading of *I, Claudius* or a critical viewing of the BBC/PBS series.

A First Exercise in Source Criticism: The Death of Messalina

The easiest way this type of exercise can be designed would be for the teacher to select an episode that appears both in one of Graves's novels and in the television series, and then to have the students identify and compare the sources for each version. For instance, in chapters 28 and 29 of

Claudius the God, Graves retells the story of Messalina, Claudius's deceitful wife, and explains her downfall. Graves's version of this incident resembles, in its general outline, much of what we know about the event from Tacitus, Suetonius, and Dio Cassius. But Graves has also filled in a number of details, tailoring his narrative to the personalities of the central characters as he has described them.

For instance, in Graves's version, there is an incident not found in the primary sources: Messalina begins the entire episode by tricking Claudius into a divorce. She does this by telling the emperor that a divorce would forestall the prophecy that a great disaster was about to befall her *husband*. She further suggests that she be allowed to marry the consul-elect, C. Silius, thus causing the ill omen to be transferred to him in punishment for his insolence toward Claudius. The emperor agrees to this plan and, in fact, is willing to officiate at the wedding himself. Moreover, the girl Calpurnia, who reveals Messalina's deception to Claudius, is described merely as a prostitute with whom Claudius had lived some time ago, *before* his marriage.[4] The second girl in the story, Cleopatra, is said to be "Calpurnia's friend who shared the house with her" (Graves, 1935, p. 494). In Tacitus, by contrast, Calpurnia and Cleopatra are Claudius's two concubines (*duas paelices*: Tacitus *Annals* 11.29), an allegation repeated by Dio Cassius (see the reference to Claudius's "concubines" [*pallakon*] at 61.31.4).

Graves also states that Narcissus, the freedman who serves Claudius as his general secretary, ordered that Messalina be executed without securing the emperor's permission. Narcissus is reported to have done this in the hope that Messalina, upon hearing the sentence, would resort to suicide, thus freeing him from the need to explain his unauthorized order. To expedite this plan, Narcissus sends the former slave Euodus to Messalina with word that guards are on their way to kill her. Messalina cajoles and pleads with Euodus until the guards break down the door. The final words of the empress, as she vainly attempts suicide, are "Oh, I can't, Mother! I'm afraid!" Graves then continues, "The Colonel's sword was out of its sheath. He took three long steps forward and ran her through" (Graves, 1935, p. 516).

In the television series (Pulman, 1976) based upon Graves's novels, the fall of Messalina appears at the end of episode 12, "A God in Colchester." This particular episode is one of the most interesting in the series because

it bears, at times, a stronger resemblance to our primary sources than to Graves's version of the events. For instance, the television series makes no mention of an attempt by Claudius to circumvent a prophecy by divorcing Messalina; indeed, Claudius is said to be one of the few people who did not know of the divorce. Nor does it appear that intimate relations between Claudius and Calpurnia have long been suspended: Messalina says that she is aware of Calpurnia's occasional visits to Claudius and the freedman Pallas notes that the two of them have been friends "for years." Moreover, Claudius's comment upon describing the incident much later—"It will seem incredible, I know, in a city where nothing escapes notice or comment that [Silius and Messalina] could have felt themselves so secure. And yet they did. And I was perhaps the only man in Rome who knew nothing of it" (Pulman, 1976)—is taken directly from Tacitus's own remarks at *Annals* 11.27.

The departures in the television series from the account that appears in the ancient historians are at least as likely to be creations of the scriptwriter as borrowings from the works of Robert Graves. For instance, the series represents a drunken Claudius as having been tricked into ordering Messalina's execution himself. There is no need, in this version, for the guard to break down the door of Messalina's room, since she herself opens it willingly in the hope that Claudius has come to forgive her. The guard then tells Messalina that he has been ordered to cut off her "pretty head and put it on a spear," causing Messalina to utter her final words in a shrill and pathetic scream, "Not my head! Not my head!"

After the class has watched this episode and read the relevant chapters from *Claudius the God*, the teacher might begin a discussion of the two accounts by asking the students to compare and contrast the details in them. Are there any differences, the students might be asked, between the two versions? Do the characters of Claudius and Messalina appear similar in the two accounts, or is one depiction of Claudius more sympathetic and one depiction of Messalina more horrifying? Which statements or actions in the two versions lead the students to these conclusions?

Then, once the class has identified several ways in which the television series differs from the novel, the teacher might proceed to the more basic question: Which of these two versions is more historically accurate? The students will not be able to answer this question immedi-

ately. The result will be a *healthy* confusion, since the students' uncertainty can then be used as a basis for exploring how we might investigate an event that occurred nearly two thousand years ago. What, the teacher might ask, are our ancient sources for the life of Claudius? And which sources were used by Robert Graves in writing his novel and by Jack Pulman in writing his screenplay?

To aid the students in answering these questions, the teacher might provide the class with the following excerpts—either in translation or, in upper-level language courses, in the original Latin or Greek—of our three major ancient sources dealing with the death of Messalina:

1. [Messalina's mother, Lepida] urged Messalina not to wait for the executioner. She told Messalina that her life was over and that there was nothing more to hope for but a dignified death. And yet, there was no honor left in that heart corrupted by lust. She was still carrying on with tears and vain protests when the door was broken in by the men sent to kill her. . . . Then for the first time Messalina realized her predicament. She took a dagger and put it first to her throat and then to her breast. Each time she held back in fear, until finally the guard ran her through. Messalina's body was left with her mother. The report reached Claudius while he was eating. He was told only that Messalina had died, not that her death had not been a suicide. Nor did he inquire. He simply asked for more wine and continued his meal as usual. (*Annals* 11.37–38)
2. Then [Claudius] married Valeria Messalina, daughter of his cousin Messala Barbatus. Yet when he learned not only that she had been guilty of other disgraceful crimes, but also that she had married Gaius Silius—even had the ceremony performed before witnesses—Claudius executed her . . . and he lost his unreasoning passion for Messalina, not so much from the shamelessness of her insults, as from fear since he believed that she wanted the throne for her lover Silius. (*The Deified Claudius* 26.2–36)
3. When Claudius was all alone, Narcissus used his concubines to inform him of everything that was happening. He frightened Claudius with the thought that Messalina was going to kill him and see that Silius got the throne. In this way, he persuaded Claudius to arrest and torture a number of people. While all this was happening, Claudius himself hurried back to the city. There he had [the actor] Mnester and many others executed. Afterwards, he ordered that Messalina herself be killed. She had fled to the gardens of Asiaticus which were, in large part, the cause of her undoing. (Dio Cassius 61.31.4–5)

After the students have studied these passages, they may be asked which of the three accounts seems closest in detail and in spirit to the episode as it appears in *Claudius the God* on the one hand, and in the television series on the other. Which of the texts, the students can be asked, presents the most favorable view of Claudius? Which presents the most negative view?

What do the three different assessments tell us about Claudius? More important, what do they tell us about the different authors?

By participating in an exercise of this kind, students will come to view history not as an important record of the past, but as a "canvas" upon which different artists may represent a scene in different ways. As the exercise continues, students will understand that Graves, like any historian or author of historical novels, has revealed not merely the facts about a period, but also his own individual perspectives, interpretations, and even biases.[5]

A Second Exercise in Source Criticism: The Character of Tiberius

Perhaps nowhere is it more important for students to understand that biases exist than in the matter of interpreting an author's characters. Many historians, and nearly all historical novelists, devote a great deal of attention to describing the desires and motivations of historical figures. Yet these desires and motivations never were, in most cases, enunciated by the individuals themselves. This difficulty may also be compounded since, on those occasions when historical figures *have* told us why they undertook a given course of action, we can never be certain whether we should believe them. Few people, after all, can assess their own motives with complete objectivity. Moreover, it is always possible that historical figures have intentionally cast the best possible light upon their motives, reporting not what they actually believed but what they wanted posterity to believe.

One character for whom this issue is almost certain to arise is Livia's son, Tiberius. Tiberius had a personality that is subject to multiple interpretations. Many of his actions may be depicted either as cruel or as well-intentioned, depending upon the author's point of view. For instance, in the second episode of the BBC/PBS series, "Family Affairs," Tiberius is represented as upset over his forced marriage to Augustus's daughter, Julia. He is so upset, in fact, that he begins weeping when he speaks of the matter to his brother, Drusus. What is worse, as far as the imperial family is concerned, is that Tiberius has continued to meet in secret with his former wife, Vipsania. Tiberius's indifference to Julia angers Augustus, and the emperor confronts his son-in-law in a memorable scene.

After viewing this episode, the students in the Latin course might be asked what Tiberius's visits to Vipsania and Augustus's reaction to them

reveal about these historical figures. Does the incident make Tiberius seem foolish or victimized or merely callous toward Julia? What does it tell us about Tiberius's interest in the throne or his lack thereof? Why did Tiberius agree to marry Julia in the first place? (Have the students watch, with special attention, the conversation between Tiberius and Drusus in the bathhouse. Who insisted upon this marriage? What did Tiberius hope to gain from it?) And does this sequence of events appear to be something that really happened or is it merely an event that was created for the screenplay?[6]

Similarly, in episode 8, "Reign of Terror," we see the fall of Sejanus, who served Tiberius as his commander of the Praetorian Guard. Tiberius's reaction to learning that he has been betrayed by Sejanus could be described either as justified or as harshly vindictive, depending on perspective. After the students have viewed this episode, therefore, they might be asked to account for Tiberius's response. Are Sejanus and Tiberius equally malicious, or was Tiberius's anger understandable? Furthermore, in light of how Sejanus—and many others, beginning with Augustus himself—had treated Tiberius, is there any way in which we might view Tiberius as a victim of circumstance? What seems to have been Graves's attitude toward Tiberius and how is this emperor depicted by the ancient historians?[7]

In order to develop more completely the class's understanding of these issues, the teacher might distribute the following descriptions of Tiberius, all of which are concerned with the same aspect of his personality:

1. Tiberius was one of the bad Claudians. He was morose, reserved and cruel. (Graves, 1934, p. 38)
   Tiberius never made it plain which way he wanted [the Senate] to vote even when he was very anxious for them to vote one way or another. He wanted to avoid all appearance of tyranny and yet to keep his position at the head of affairs. The Senate soon found that if he spoke with studied elegance in favour of a motion he meant that he wanted it voted against, and that if he spoke with studied elegance against it this meant that he wanted it passed; and that on the very few occasions when he spoke briefly and without any rhetoric he meant to be taken literally. (pp. 208–9)
2. Tiberius' words were due more to his sense of decorum than to any real conviction on his part. Even in matters where Tiberius did not intend to be deceptive, he was—either from nature or from habit—always hesitant and obscure. But now that he wished to suppress his true feelings, his speeches became even more ambiguous and unclear. (Tacitus *Annals* 1.11)

3. Tiberius assumed the principate at once and he did not hesitate to exercise his power. He requested a bodyguard and thus surrounded himself with both the appearance and the benefits of sovereignty. Yet he long refused the title of "emperor" itself even though his friends often urged him to accept it. But, with the baldest hypocrisy, he chided them, saying that they did not know how monstrous the empire was. His replies to the Senate on this issue were marked by evasions and cunning hesitation until they were begging him to accept the throne. (Suetonius *Tiberius* 24.1)
Tiberius could not hide his cruel and sullen nature even in childhood. (Suetonius *Tiberius* 57.1)
4. Tiberius was a patrician and well educated but he had an idiosyncratic nature. He never revealed what he actually desired nor did he want any of the things that he said he wanted. Rather, his words were diametrically opposed to his intentions. Whatever he desired, he pretended to refuse. And whatever he hated, he pretended to praise. He seemed to grow angry over things which really disturbed him not at all and he pretended to be most gracious when he was actually quite upset. (Dio Cassius 57.1.1)

While the students are discussing these passages, they should be encouraged to note the different coloring that each author has given to his description of the same trait. In which of the passages, the students might be asked, is Tiberius treated most generously? Which author has given us the most negative assessment? Is there any one ancient source upon which Graves depended in his version or did he borrow equally from all three classical authors? Do we get a similar impression of Tiberius in the television series? If so, which of the emperor's statements and actions tend to give us that impression? If not, how is the character of Tiberius, as portrayed by the actor George Baker, different from the character we observe in Graves's novels and in our primary sources?[8]

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Students who complete this type of exercise on *I, Claudius* will come away from the Latin language or Roman civilization course with a better understanding of the individuals who shaped history during the first century of our era. They will have seen Roman houses, dress, hairstyles, and weaponry, all of which have been carefully recreated for the television series, and they will have reviewed the events, described in Graves's novels, that carried Rome from the end of the Civil Wars under Augustus to the beginning of a new reign of terror under Nero. More than this, however, they will have been exposed to many ancient sources that were used by Robert Graves and Jack Pulman in recreating this fascinating period of

Roman history. It is even possible that students will discover that Tacitus's cynicism and Suetonius's gossip-mongering reflect much of the same spirit that we find in Graves's novels and in the television series that was based on them. In this way, for yet another generation, the lines between ancient history and modern historical fiction will inevitably—and, one hopes, pleasantly—begin to blur.

Notes

1. For further information, or for examples of course materials based upon the techniques discussed in this paper, please contact Jeffrey L. Buller, Department of Classical Studies, Campus Box 886, Loras College, Dubuque, Iowa 52004-0178. Telephone (319) 588-7953. CompuServe 71310, 1617.
2. The Library Video Classics Project of the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation has made it possible for public libraries to purchase a number of PBS series, including *I, Claudius*, at a substantially reduced price. Cassettes included in the Library Video Classics Project bear the following special notice: "With the exception of *The Jewel in the Crown*, which is licensed for private home use only, all other programs in the Library Video Classics Project are licensed for public performance." This makes the series particularly useful to teachers.
3. On the general use of historical fiction in the Latin class, including a discussion of the different ways of approaching historical novels, see Buller (1989).
4. In fact, at the end of chapter 9 of *Claudius the God* (Graves, 1934, p. 170), Graves states explicitly that Calpurnia never visited Claudius at the palace and that he never went to see her once he became emperor.
5. Other incidents suitable for this type of source criticism include:

   The Banishment of Julia
   I, Claudius 73–79
   Tacitus's *Annals* 1.53
   Suetonius's *The Deified Augustus* 65
   Dio Cassius 55.10.14–16

   The Murder of Agrippa Postumus
   I, Claudius 224–26
   Tacitus's *Annals* 1.6
   Suetonius's *Tiberius* 22
   Dio Cassius 57.3.5; 6; 16.3–4

   The Death of Tiberius
   I, Claudius 348–53
   Tacitus's *Annals* 6.50
   Suetonius's *Tiberius* 73
   Dio Cassius 58.28

   Caligula's "Invasion" of Britain
   I, Claudius 405–7
   Suetonius's *Caligula* 55.3
   Dio Cassius 59.25.1–5

   The Honors Bestowed on Incitatus
   I, Claudius 378
   Suetonius's *Caligula*
   Dio Cassius 59.14.7
6. The historical sources for this incident are Tacitus's *Annals* 1.12, Suetonius's *Tiberius* 3.7.2–3, and Dio Cassius 54.31.2. In Graves's novel (1934) it is described at p. 38. After comparing these accounts, it should be apparent to the students how closely Graves is following Suetonius, rather than the other sources, here; the events depicted in the television series are a rather complete extrapolation from Suetonius and Graves. As the students examine the primary sources, they might also be asked the following: "What name is used for Tiberius's first wife in Tacitus, in Graves's novel, and in the BBC/PBS series? What name is used for this same character in Suetonius? How does Dio Cassius refer to her? Using your knowledge of ancient Roman names, explain all three designations for this character. Why might the other authors have preferred not to use the name found in Suetonius?"
7. The historical sources for the fall of Sejanus are Suetonius's *Tiberius* 65, Juvenal 10.58–113, and Dio Cassius 58.6–11. The section of Tacitus's *Annals* in which this event is described is now lost. Robert Graves presents the downfall of Sejanus in chapter 27 of *I, Claudius*. Both the novel and the television series have been influenced by Dio Cassius's description of the events.
8. Other figures who lend themselves to this sort of character analysis include Livia, Antonia, Piso, Germanicus, Livilla, and the elder Agrippina.

References

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Graves, Robert. 1934 (reprinted 1961). *I, Claudius*. New York: Random House.

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Appendix A: ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines

The 1986 proficiency guidelines represent a hierarchy of global characterizations of integrated performance in speaking, listening, reading and writing. Each description is a representative, not an exhaustive, sample of a particular range of ability, and each level subsumes all previous levels, moving from simple to complex in an "all-before-and-more" fashion.

Because these guidelines identify stages of proficiency, as opposed to achievement, they are not intended to measure what an individual has achieved through specific classroom instruction but rather to allow assessment of what an individual can and cannot do, regardless of where, when, or how the language has been learned or acquired; thus, the words "learned" and "acquired" are used in the broadest sense. These guidelines are not based on a particular linguistic theory or pedagogical method, since the guidelines are proficiency-based, as opposed to achievement-based, and are intended to be used for global assessment.

The 1986 guidelines should not be considered the definitive version, since the construction and utilization of language proficiency guidelines is a dynamic, interactive process. The academic sector, like the government sector, will continue to refine and update the criteria periodically to reflect the needs of the users and the advances of the profession. In this vein, ACTFL owes a continuing debt to the creators of the 1982 provisional proficiency guidelines and, of course, to the members of the Interagency Language Roundtable Testing Committee, the creators of the government's Language Skill Level Descriptions.

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Generic Descriptions—Speaking

Novice The Novice level is characterized by the ability to communicate minimally with learned material.

Novice-Low Oral production consists of isolated words and perhaps a few high-frequency phrases. Essentially no functional communicative ability.

Novice-Mid Oral production continues to consist of isolated words and learned phrases within very predictable areas of need, although quality is increased. Vocabulary is sufficient only for handling simple, elementary needs and expressing basic courtesies. Utterances rarely consist of more than two or three words and show frequent long pauses and repetition of interlocutor's words. Speaker may have some difficulty producing even the simplest utterances. Some Novice-Mid speakers will be understood only with great difficulty.

Novice-High Able to satisfy partially the requirements of basic communicative exchanges by relying heavily on learned utterances but occasionally expanding these through simple recombinations of their elements. Can ask questions or make statements involving learned material. Shows signs of spontaneity although this falls short of real autonomy of expression. Speech continues to consist of learned utterances rather than of personalized, situationally adapted ones. Vocabulary centers on areas such a basic objects, places, and most common kinship terms. Pronunciation may still be strongly influenced by first language. Errors are frequent and, in spite of repetition, some Novice-High speakers will have difficulty being understood even by sympathetic interlocutors.

Intermediate The Intermediate level is characterized by the speaker's ability to:

- create with the language by combining and recombining learned elements, though primarily in a reactive mode;
- initiate, minimally sustain, and close in a simple way basic communicative tasks; and
- ask and answer questions.

Intermediate-Low Able to handle successfully a limited number of interactive, task-oriented and social situations. Can ask and answer questions, initiate and respond to simple statements and maintain face-to-face conversation, although in a highly restricted manner and with much linguistic inaccuracy. Within these limitations, can perform such tasks as introducing self, ordering a meal, asking directions,

and making purchases. Vocabulary is adequate to express only the most elementary needs. Strong interference from native language may occur. Misunderstandings frequently arise, but with repetition, the Intermediate Low speaker can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors.

Intermediate Mid — Able to handle successfully a variety of uncomplicated, basic and communicative tasks and social situations. Can talk simply about self and family members. Can ask and answer questions and participate in simple conversations on topics beyond the most immediate needs; e.g., personal history and leisure time activities. Utterance length increases slightly, but speech may continue to be characterized by frequent long pauses, since the smooth incorporation of even basic conversational strategies is often hindered as the speaker struggles to create appropriate language forms. Pronunciation may continue to be strongly influenced by first language and fluency may still be strained. Although misunderstandings still arise, the Intermediate Mid speaker can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors.

Intermediate High — Able to handle successfully most uncomplicated communicative tasks and social situations. Can initiate, sustain, and close a general conversation with a number of strategies appropriate to a range of circumstances and topics, but errors are evident. Limited vocabulary still necessitates hesitation and may bring about slightly unexpected circumlocution. There is emerging evidence of connected discourse, particularly for simple narration and/or description. The Intermediate High speaker can generally be understood even by interlocutors not accustomed to dealing with speakers at this level, but repetition may still be required.

Advanced — The Advanced level is characterized by the speaker's ability to:

—converse in a clearly participatory fashion;
—initiate, sustain, and bring to closure a wide variety of communicative tasks, including those that require an increased ability to convey meaning with diverse language strategies due to a complication or an unforeseen turn of events;
—satisfy the requirements of school and work situations; and
—narrate and describe with paragraph-length connected discourse.

Advanced — Able to satisfy the requirements of everyday situations and routine school and work requirements. Can handle with confidence but not with facility complicated tasks and social situations, such as elaborating, complaining, and apologizing. Can narrate and describe with some details, linking sentences together smoothly. Can

communicate facts and talk casually about topics of current public and personal interest, using general vocabulary. Shortcomings can often be smoothed over by communicative strategies, such as pause fillers, stalling devices, and different rates of speech. Circumlocution which arises from vocabulary or syntactic limitations very often is quite successful, though some groping for words may still be evident. The Advanced-level speaker can be understood without difficulty by native interlocutors.

Advanced-Plus

Able to satisfy the requirements of a broad variety of everyday, school, and work situations. Can discuss concrete topics relating to particular interests and special fields of competence. There is emerging evidence of ability to support opinions, explain in detail, and hypothesize. The Advanced-Plus speaker often shows a well-developed ability to compensate for an imperfect grasp of some forms with confident use of communicative strategies, such as paraphrasing and circumlocution. Differentiated vocabulary and intonation are effectively used to communicate fine shades of meaning. The Advanced-Plus speaker often shows remarkable fluency and ease of speech but under the demands of Superior-level, complex tasks, language may break down or prove inadequate.

Superior

The Superior level is characterized by the speaker's ability to:

—participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations on practical, social, professional, and abstract topics; and
—support opinions and hypothesize using native-like discourse strategies.

Superior

Able to speak the language with sufficient accuracy to participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations on practical, social, professional, and abstract topics. Can discuss special fields of competence and interest with ease. Can support opinions and hypothesize, but may not be able to tailor language to audience or discuss in depth highly abstract or unfamiliar topics. Usually the Superior-level speaker commands a wide variety of interactive strategies and shows good awareness of discourse strategies. The latter involves the ability to distinguish main ideas from supporting information through syntactic, lexical and suprasegmental features (pitch, stress, intonation). Sporadic errors may occur, particularly in low-frequency structures and some complex high-frequency structures more common to formal writing, but no patterns of error are evident. Errors do not disturb the native speaker or interfere with communication.

Generic Descriptions—Listening

These guidelines assume that all listening tasks take place in an authentic environment at a normal rate of speech using standard or near-standard norms.

Novice Low — Understanding is limited to occasional isolated words, such as cognates, borrowed words, and high-frequency social conventions. Essentially no ability to comprehend even short utterances.

Novice Mid — Able to understand some short, learned utterances, particularly where context strongly supports understanding and speech is clearly audible. Comprehends some words and phrases from simple questions, statements, high-frequency commands and courtesy formulae about topics that refer to basic personal information or the immediate physical setting. The listener requires long pauses for assimilation and periodically requests repetition and/or a slower rate of speech.

Novice High — Able to understand short, learned utterances and some sentence-length utterances, particularly where context strongly supports understanding and speech is clearly audible. Comprehends words and phrases from simple questions, statements, high-frequency commands and courtesy formulae. May require repetition, rephrasing and/or a slowed rate of speech for comprehension.

Intermediate Low — Able to understand sentence-length utterances which consist of recombinations of learned elements in a limited number of content areas, particularly if strongly supported by the situational context. Content refers to basic personal background and needs, social conventions and routine tasks, such as getting meals and receiving simple instructions and directions. Listening tasks pertain primarily to spontaneous face-to-face conversations. Understanding is often uneven; repetition and rewording may be necessary. Misunderstandings in both main ideas and details arise frequently.

Intermediate Mid — Able to understand sentence-length utterances which consist of recombinations of learned utterances on a variety of topics. Content continues to refer primarily to basic personal background and needs, social conventions and somewhat more complex tasks, such as lodging, transportation, and shopping. Additional content areas include some personal interests and activities, and a greater diversity of instructions and directions. Listening tasks not only pertain to spontaneous face-to-face conversations but also to short routine telephone conversations and some deliberate speech, such as simple announcements and reports over the media. Understanding continues to be uneven.

Intermediate-High	Able to sustain understanding over longer stretches of connected discourse on a number of topics pertaining to different times and places; however, understanding is inconsistent due to failure to grasp main ideas and/or details. Thus, while topics do not differ significantly from those of an Advanced-level listener, comprehension is less in quantity and poorer in quality.
Advanced	Able to understand main ideas and most details of connected discourse on a variety of topics beyond the immediacy of the situation. Comprehension may be uneven due to a variety of linguistic and extralinguistic factors, among which topic familiarity is very prominent. These texts frequently involve description and narration in different time frames or aspects, such as present, nonpast, habitual, or imperfective. Texts may include interviews, short lectures on familiar topics, and news items and reports primarily dealing with factual information. Listener is aware of cohesive devices but may not be able to use them to follow the sequence of thought in an oral text.
Advanced-Plus	Able to understand the main ideas of most speech in a standard dialect; however, the listener may not be able to sustain comprehension in extended discourse which is propositionally and linguistically complex. Listener shows an emerging awareness of culturally implied meanings beyond the surface meanings of the text but may fail to grasp sociocultural nuances of the message.
Superior	Able to understand the main ideas of all speech in a standard dialect, including technical discussion in a field of specialization. Can follow the essentials of extended discourse which is propositionally and linguistically complex, as in academic/professional settings, in lectures, speeches, and reports. Listener shows some appreciation of aesthetic norms of target language, of idioms, colloquialisms, and register shifting. Able to make inferences within the cultural framework of the target language. Understanding is aided by an awareness of the underlying organizational structure of the oral text and includes sensitivity for its social and cultural references and its affective overtones. Rarely misunderstands but may not understand excessively rapid, highly colloquial speech or speech that has strong cultural references.
Distinguished	Able to understand all forms and styles of speech pertinent to personal, social and professional needs tailored to different audiences. Shows strong sensitivity to social and cultural references and aesthetic norms by processing language from within the cultural framework. Texts include theater plays, screen productions, editorials, symposia, academic debates, public policy state-

ments, literary readings, and most jokes and puns. May have difficulty with some dialects and slang.

Generic Descriptions—Reading

These guidelines assume all reading texts to be authentic and legible.

Novice Low — Able occasionally to identify isolated words and/or major phrases when strongly supported by context.

Novice Mid — Able to recognize the symbols of an alphabetic and/or syllabic writing system and/or a limited number of characters in a system that uses characters. The reader can identify an increasing number of highly contextualized words and/or phrases including cognates and borrowed words, where appropriate. Material understood rarely exceeds a single phrase at a time, and rereading may be required.

Novice High — Has sufficient control of the writing system to interpret written language in areas of practical need. Where vocabulary has been learned, can read for instructional and directional purposes standardized messages, phrases or expressions, such as some items on menus, schedules, timetables, maps, and signs. At times, but not on a consistent basis, the Novice High reader may be able to derive meaning from material at a slightly higher level where context and/or extralinguistic background knowledge are supportive.

Intermediate Low — Able to understand main ideas and/or some facts from the simplest connected texts dealing with basic personal and social needs. Such texts are linguistically noncomplex and have a clear underlying internal structure, for example chronological sequencing. They impart basic information about which the reader has to make only minimal suppositions or to which the reader brings personal interest and/or knowledge. Examples include messages with social purposes or information for the widest possible audience, such as public announcements and short, straightforward instructions dealing with public life. Some misunderstandings will occur.

Intermediate Mid — Able to read consistently with increased understanding simple connected texts dealing with a variety of basic and social needs. Such texts are still linguistically noncomplex and have a clear underlying internal structure. They impart basic information about which the reader has to make minimal suppositions and to which the reader brings personal interest and/or knowledge. Examples may include short, straightforward descriptions of persons, places, and things written for a wide audience.

Intermediate-High	Able to read consistently with full understanding simple connected texts dealing with basic personal and social needs about which the reader has personal interest and/or knowledge. Can get some main ideas and information from texts at the next higher level featuring description and narration. Structural complexity may interfere with comprehension; for example, basic grammatical relations may be misinterpreted and temporal references may rely primarily on lexical items. Has some difficulty with the cohesive factors in discourse, such as matching pronouns with referents. While texts do not differ significantly from those at the Advanced level, comprehension is less consistent. May have to read material several times for understanding.
Advanced	Able to read somewhat longer prose of several paragraphs in length, particularly if presented with a clear underlying structure. The prose is predominantly in familiar sentence patterns. Reader gets the main ideas and facts and misses some details. Comprehension derives not only from situational and subject matter knowledge but from increasing controls of the language. Texts at this level include descriptions and narrations such as simple short stories, news items, bibliographical information, social notices, personal correspondence, routinized business letters and simple technical material written for the general reader.
Advanced-Plus	Able to follow essential points of written discourse at the Superior level in areas of special interest or knowledge. Able to understand parts of texts which are conceptually abstract and linguistically complex, and/or texts which treat unfamiliar topics and situations, as well as some texts which involve aspects of target-language culture. Able to comprehend the facts to make appropriate inferences. An emerging awareness of the aesthetic properties of language and of its literary styles permits comprehension of a wider variety of texts, including literary. Misunderstandings may occur.
Superior	Able to read with almost complete comprehension and at normal speed expository prose on unfamiliar subjects and a variety of literary texts. Reading ability is not dependent on subject matter knowledge, although the reader is not expected to comprehend thoroughly texts which are highly dependent on knowledge of the target culture. Reads easily for pleasure. Superior-level texts feature hypotheses, argumentation and supported opinions and include grammatical patterns and vocabulary ordinarily encountered in academic/professional reading. At this level, due to the control of general vocabulary and structure, the reader is almost always able to match the meanings derived from extralinguistic

knowledge with meanings derived from knowledge of the language, allowing for smooth and efficient reading of diverse texts. Occasional misunderstandings may still occur; for example, the reader may experience some difficulty with unusually complex structures and low-frequency idioms. At the Superior level the reader can match strategies, top-down or bottom-up, which are most appropriate to the text. (Top-down strategies rely on real-world knowledge and prediction based on genre and organizational scheme of the text. Bottom-up strategies rely on actual linguistic knowledge.) Material at this level will include a variety of literary texts, editorials, correspondence, general reports and technical material in professional fields. Rereading is rarely necessary, and misreading is rare.

Distinguished — Able to read fluently and accurately most styles and forms of the language pertinent to academic and professional needs. Able to relate inferences in the text to real-world knowledge and understand almost all sociolinguistic and cultural references by processing language from within the cultural framework. Able to understand a writer's use of nuance and subtlety. Can readily follow unpredictable turns of thought and author intent in such materials as sophisticated editorials, specialized journal articles, and literary texts such as novels, plays, poems, as well as in any subject matter area directed to the general reader.

Generic Descriptions—Writing

Novice Low — Able to form some letters in an alphabetic system. In languages whose writing systems use syllabaries or characters, writer is able to both copy and produce the basic strokes. Can produce romanization of isolated characters, where applicable.

Novice Mid — Able to copy or transcribe familiar words or phrases and reproduce some from memory. No practical communicative writing skills.

Novice High — Able to write simple fixed expressions and limited memorized material and some recombinations thereof. Can supply information on simple forms and documents. Can write names, numbers, dates, own nationality, and other simple autobiographical information as well as some short phrases and simple lists. Can write all the symbols in an alphabetic or syllabic system or 50–100 characters or compounds in a character writing system. Spelling and representation of symbols (letters, syllables, characters) may be partially correct.

Intermediate-Low	Able to meet limited practical writing needs. Can write short messages, postcards, and take down simple notes, such as telephone messages. Can create statements or questions within the scope of limited language experience. Material produced consists of recombinations of learned vocabulary and structures into simple sentences on very familiar topics. Language is inadequate to express in writing anything but elementary needs. Frequent errors in grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling and in formation of nonalphabetic symbols, but writing can be understood by natives used to the writing of nonnatives.
Intermediate-Mid	Able to meet a number of practical writing needs. Can write short, simple letters. Content involves personal preferences, daily routine, everyday events, and other topics grounded in personal experience. Can express present time or at least one other time frame or aspect consistently, e.g., nonpast, habitual, imperfective. Evidence of control of the syntax of noncomplex sentences and basic inflectional morphology, such as declensions and conjugation. Writing tends to be a loose collection of sentences or sentence fragments on a given topic and provides little evidence of conscious organization. Can be understood by natives used to the writing of nonnatives.
Intermediate-High	Able to meet most practical writing needs and limited social demands. Can take notes in some detail on familiar topics and respond in writing to personal questions. Can write simple letters, brief synopses and paraphrases, summaries of biographical data, work and school experience. In those languages relying primarily on content words and time expressions to express time, tense, or aspect, some precision is displayed; where tense and/or aspect is expressed through verbal inflection, forms are produced rather consistently, but not always accurately. An ability to describe and narrate in paragraphs is emerging. Rarely uses basic cohesive elements, such as pronominal substitutions or synonyms in written discourse. Writing, though faulty, is generally comprehensible to natives used to the writing of nonnatives.
Advanced	Able to write routine social correspondence and join sentences in simple discourse of at least several paragraphs in length on familiar topics. Can write simple social correspondence, take notes, write cohesive summaries and resumes, as well as narratives and descriptions of a factual nature. Has sufficient writing vocabulary to express self simply with some circumlocution. May still make errors in punctuation, spelling, or the formation of nonalphabetic symbols. Good control of the morphology and the most frequently used syntactic structures, e.g., common word order pat-

terms, coordination, subordination, but makes frequent errors in producing complex sentences. Uses a limited number of cohesive devices, such as pronouns, accurately. Writing may resemble literal translations from the native language, but a sense of organization (rhetorical structure) is emerging. Writing is understandable to natives not used to the writing of nonnatives.

Advanced Plus — Able to write about a variety of topics with significant precision and in detail. Can write most social and informal business correspondence. Can describe and narrate personal experiences fully but has difficulty supporting points of view in written discourse. Can write about the concrete aspects of topics relating to particular interests and special fields of competence. Often shows remarkable fluency and ease of expression, but under time constraints and pressure writing may be inaccurate. Generally strong in either grammar or vocabulary, but not in both. Weakness and unevenness in one of the foregoing or in spelling or character writing formation may result in occasional miscommunication. Some misuse of vocabulary may still be evident. Style may still be obviously foreign.

Superior — Able to express self effectively in most formal and informal writing on practical, social and professional topics. Can write most types of correspondence, such as memos as well as social and business letter, and short research papers and statements of position in areas of special interest or in special fields. Good control of a full range of structures, spelling or nonalphabetic symbol production, and a wide general vocabulary allow the writer to hypothesize and present arguments or points of view accurately and effectively. An underlying organization, such as chronological ordering, logical ordering, cause and effect, comparison, and thematic development is strongly evident, although not thoroughly executed and/or not totally reflecting target language patterns. Although sensitive to differences in formal and informal style, still may not tailor writing precisely to a variety of purposes and/or readers. Errors in writing rarely disturb natives or cause miscommunication.

Appendix B: Interagency Language Roundtable Language Skill Level Descriptions

Speaking

Preface

The following proficiency level descriptions characterize spoken language use. Each of the six "base levels" (coded 00, 10, 20, 30, 40, and 50) implies control of any previous "base level's" functions and accuracy. The "plus level" designation (coded 06, 16, 26, etc.) will be assigned when proficiency substantially exceeds one base skill level and does not fully meet the criteria for the next "base level." The "plus level" descriptions are therefore supplementary to the "base level" descriptions.

A skill level is assigned to a person through an authorized language examination. Examiners assign a level on a variety of performance criteria exemplified in the descriptive statements. Therefore, the examples given here illustrate, but do not exhaustively describe, either the skills a person may possess or situations in which he/she may function effectively.

Statements describing accuracy refer to typical stages in the development of competence in the most commonly taught languages in formal training programs. In other languages, emerging competence parallels these characterizations, but often with different details.

Unless otherwise specified, the term "native speaker" refers to native speakers of a standard dialect.

"Well-educated," in the context of these proficiency descriptions, does not necessarily imply formal higher education. However, in cultures where formal higher education is common, the language-use abilities of persons who have had such education is considered the standard. That is, such a person meets the contemporary expectations for the formal, careful style of the language, as well as a range of less formal varieties of the language.

Speaking 0 (No Proficiency)

Unable to function in the spoken language. Oral production is limited to occasional isolated words. Has essentially no communicative ability. (Has been coded S-0 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 00]

Speaking 0+ (Memorized Proficiency)

Able to satisfy immediate needs using rehearsed utterances. Shows little real autonomy of expression, flexibility, or spontaneity. Can ask questions or make statements with reasonable accuracy only with memorized utterances of formulae. Attempts at creating speech are usually unsuccessful.

Examples: The individual's vocabulary is usually limited to areas of immediate survival needs. Most utterances are telegraphic; that is, functors (linking words, markers, and the like) are omitted, confused, or distorted. An individual can usually differentiate most significant sounds when produced in isolation, but, when combined in words or groups of words, errors may be frequent. Even with repetition, communication is severely limited even with people used to dealing with foreigners. Stress, intonation, tone, etc. are usually quite faulty. (Has been coded S-0+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 06]

Speaking 1 (Elementary Proficiency)

Able to satisfy minimum courtesy requirements and maintain very simple face-to-face conversations on familiar topics. A native speaker must often use slowed speech, repetition, paraphrase, or a combination of these to be understood by this individual. Similarly, the native speaker must strain and employ real-world knowledge to understand even simple statements/questions from this individual. This speaker has a functional, but limited proficiency. Misunderstandings are frequent, but the individual is able to ask for help and to verify comprehension of native speech in face-to-face interaction. The individual is unable to produce continuous discourse except with rehearsed material.

Examples: Structural accuracy is likely to be random or severely limited. Time concepts are vague. Vocabulary is inaccurate, and its range is very narrow. The individual often speaks with great difficulty. By repeating, such speakers can make themselves understood to native speakers who are in regular contact with foreigners but there is little precision in the information conveyed. Needs, experiences, or training may vary greatly from individual to individual; for example, speakers at this level may have encountered quite different vocabulary areas. However, the individual can typically satisfy predictable, simple personal and accommodation needs; can generally meet courtesy, introduction, and identification requirements; exchange greetings; elicit and provide, for example, predictable and skeletal biographical information. He/she might give information about business hours, explain routine procedures in a limited way, and state in a simple manner what actions will be

taken. He/she is able to formulate some questions even in languages with complicated question constructions. Almost every utterance may be characterized by structural errors and errors in basic grammatical relations. Vocabulary is extremely limited and characteristically does not include modifiers. Pronunciation, stress, and intonation are generally poor, often heavily influenced by another language. Use of structure and vocabulary is highly imprecise. (Has been coded S-1 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 10]

Speaking 1+ (Elementary Proficiency, Plus)

Can initiate and maintain predictable face-to-face conversations and satisfy limited social demands. He/she may, however, have little understanding of the social conventions of conversation. The interlocutor is generally required to strain and employ real-world knowledge to understand even some simple speech. The speaker at this level may hesitate and may have to change subjects due to lack of language resources. Range and control of the language are limited. Speech largely consists of a series of short, discrete utterances.

Examples: The individual is able to satisfy most travel and accommodation needs and a limited range of social demands beyond exchange of skeletal biographical information. Speaking ability may extend beyond immediate survival needs. Accuracy in basic grammatical relations is evident, although not consistent. May exhibit the more common forms of verb tenses, for example, but may make frequent errors in formation and selection. While some structures are established, errors occur in more complex patterns. The individual typically cannot sustain coherent structures in longer utterances or unfamiliar situations. Ability to describe and give precise information is limited. Person, space, and time references are often used incorrectly. Pronunciation is understandable to natives used to dealing with foreigners. Can combine most significant sounds with reasonable comprehensibility, but has difficulty in producing certain sounds in certain positions or in certain combinations. Speech will usually be laboured. Frequently has to repeat utterances to be understood by the general public. (Has been coded S-1+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 18]

Speaking 2 (Limited Working Proficiency)

Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements. Can handle routine work-related interactions that are limited in scope. In more complex and sophisticated work-related tasks, language usage generally disturbs the native speaker. Can handle with confidence, but not with facility, most normal, high-frequency social conversational situations including extensive, but casual conversations about current events, as well as work, family, and autobiographical information. The individual can get the gist of most everyday conversations but has some difficulty understanding native speakers in situations that require specialized or sophisticated knowledge. The individual's utterances are minimally cohesive. Linguistic structure is usually not very elaborate and not thoroughly

controlled; errors are frequent. Vocabulary use is appropriate for high-frequency utterances, but unusual or imprecise elsewhere.

Examples: While these interactions will vary widely from individual to individual, the individual can typically ask and answer predictable questions in the workplace and give straightforward instructions to subordinates. Additionally, the individual can participate in personal and accommodation-type interactions with elaboration and facility; that is, can give and understand complicated, detailed, and extensive directions and make non-routine changes in travel and accommodation arrangements. Simple structures and basic grammatical relations are typically controlled; however, there are areas of weakness. In the commonly taught languages, these may be simple markings such as plurals, articles, linking words, and negatives or more complex structures such as tense/aspect usage, case morphology, passive constructions, word order, and embedding. (Has been coded S-2 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 20]

Speaking 2+ (Limited Working Proficiency, Plus)

Able to satisfy most work requirements with language usage that is often, but not always, acceptable and effective. The individual shows considerable ability to communicate effectively on topics relating to particular interests and special fields of competence. Often shows a high degree of fluency and ease of speech, yet when under tension or pressure, the ability to use the language effectively may deteriorate. Comprehension of normal native speech is typically nearly complete. The individual may miss cultural and local references and may require a native speaker to adjust to his/her limitations in some ways. Native speakers often perceive the individual's speech to contain awkward or inaccurate phrasing of ideas, mistaken time, space, and person references, or to be in some way inappropriate, if not strictly incorrect.

Examples: Typically the individual can participate in most social, formal, and informal interactions; but limitations either in range of contexts, types of tasks, or level of accuracy hinder effectiveness. The individual may be ill at ease with the use of the language either in social interaction, or in speaking at length in professional contexts. He/she is generally strong in either structural precision or vocabulary, but not in both. Weakness or uneveness in one of the foregoing, or in pronunciation, occasionally results in miscommunication. Normally controls, but cannot always easily produce general vocabulary. Discourse is often incohesive. (Has been coded S-2+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 26]

Speaking 3 (General Professional Proficiency)

Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations on practical, social, and professional topics. Nevertheless, the individual's limitations generally restrict the professional contexts of language use to matters of shared knowledge and/or international

convention. Discourse is cohesive. The individual uses the language acceptably, but with some noticeable imperfections; yet, errors virtually never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb the native speaker. The individual can effectively combine structure and vocabulary to convey his/her meaning accurately. The individual speaks readily and fills pauses suitably. In face-to-face conversation with natives speaking the standard dialect at a normal rate of speech, comprehension is quite complete. Although cultural references, proverbs, and the implications of nuances and idioms may not be fully understood, the individual can easily repair the conversation. Pronunciation may be obviously foreign. Individual sounds are accurate; but stress, intonation, and pitch control may be faulty.

Examples: Can typically discuss particular interests and special fields of competence with reasonable ease. Can use the language as part of normal professional duties such as answering objections, clarifying points, justifying decisions, understanding the essence of challenges, stating and defending policy, conducting meetings, delivering briefings, or other extended and elaborate informative monologues. Can reliably elicit information and informed opinion from native speakers. Structural inaccuracy is rarely the major cause of misunderstanding. Use of structural devices is flexible and elaborate. Without searching for words or phrases, the individual uses the language clearly and relatively naturally to elaborate concepts freely and make ideas easily understandable to native speakers. Errors occur in low-frequency and highly complex structures. (Has been coded S-3 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 30]

Speaking 3+ (General Professional Proficiency, Plus)

Is often able to use the language to satisfy professional needs in a wide range of sophisticated and demanding tasks.

Examples: Despite obvious strengths, may exhibit some hesitancy, uncertainty, effort, or errors which limit the range of language-use tasks that can be reliably performed. Typically there is particular strength in fluency and one or more, but not all, of the following: breadth of lexicon, including low-frequency and medium-frequency items, especially sociolinguistic/cultural references and nuances of close synonyms; structural precision, with sophisticated features that are readily, accurately, and appropriately controlled (such as complex modification and embedding in Indo-European languages); discourse competence in a wide range of contexts and tasks, often matching a native speaker's strategic and organizational abilities and expectations. Occasional patterned errors occur in low-frequency and highly complex structures. (Has been coded S-3+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 36]

Speaking 4 (Advanced Professional Proficiency)

Able to use the language fluently and accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs. The individual's language usage and ability to function are fully successful. Organizes discourse well, using appropriate rhetorical speech devices; native

cultural references, and understanding. Language ability only rarely hinders him/her in performing any task requiring language; yet, the individual would seldom be perceived as a native. Speaks effortlessly and smoothly and is able to use the language with a high degree of effectiveness, reliability, and precision for all representational purposes within the range of personal and professional experience and scope of responsibilities. Can serve as an informal interpreter in a range of unpredictable circumstances. Can perform extensive, sophisticated language tasks, encompassing most matters of interest to well-educated native speakers, including tasks which do not bear directly on a professional specialty.

Examples: Can discuss in detail concepts which are fundamentally different from those of the target culture and make those concepts clear and accessible to the native speaker. Similarly, the individual can understand the details and ramifications of concepts that are culturally or conceptually different from his/her own. Can set the tone of interpersonal official, semi-official, and non-professional verbal exchanges with a representative range of native speakers (in a range of varied audiences, purposes, tasks, and settings). Can play an effective role among native speakers in such contexts as conferences, lectures, and debates on matters of disagreement. Can advocate a position at length, both formally and in chance encounters, using sophisticated verbal strategies. Understands and reliably produces shifts of both subject matter and tone. Can understand native speakers of the standard and other major dialects in essentially any face-to-face interaction. (Has been coded S-4 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 40]

Speaking 4+ (Advanced Professional Proficiency, Plus)

Speaking proficiency is regularly superior in all respects, usually equivalent to that of a well-educated, highly articulate native speaker. Language ability does not impede the performance of any language-use task. However, the individual would not necessarily be perceived as culturally native.

Examples: The individual organizes discourse well, employing functional rhetorical speech devices, native cultural references and understanding. Effectively applies a native speaker's social and circumstantial knowledge. However, cannot sustain that performance under all circumstances. While the individual has a wide range and control of structure, an occasional non-native slip may occur. The individual has a sophisticated control of vocabulary and phrasing that is rarely imprecise, yet there are occasional weaknesses in idioms, colloquialisms, pronunciation, cultural reference or there may be an occasional failure to interact in a totally native manner. (Has been coded S-4+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 46]

Speaking 5 (Functionally Native Proficiency)

Speaking proficiency is [illegible]ally equivalent to that of a highly articulate well-educated native speaker and reflects the cultural standards of the country where the language is natively spoken. The individual uses the language with complete flexibility

and intuition, so that speech on all levels is fully accepted by native speakers in all of its features, including breadth of vocabulary and idiom, colloquialisms, and pertinent cultural references. Pronunciation is typically consistent with that of well-educated native speakers of a non-stigmatized dialect. (Has been coded S-5 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 50]

Listening

Preface

The following proficiency level descriptions characterize comprehension of the spoken language. Each of the six "base levels" (coded 00, 10, 20, 30, 40, and 50) implies control of any previous "base level's" functions and accuracy. The "plus level" designation (coded 06, 16, 26, etc.) will be assigned when proficiency substantially exceeds one base skill level and does not fully meet the criteria for the next "base level." The "plus level" descriptions are therefore supplementary to the "base level" descriptions.

A skill level is assigned to a person through an authorized language examination. Examiners assign a level on a variety of performance criteria exemplified in the descriptive statements. Therefore, the examples given here illustrate, but do not exhaustively describe, either the skills a person may possess or situations in which he/she may function effectively.

Statements describing accuracy refer to typical stages in the development of competence in the most commonly taught languages in formal training programs. In other languages, emerging competence parallels these characterizations, but often with different details.

Unless otherwise specified, the term "native listener" refers to native speakers and listeners of a standard dialect.

"Well-educated," in the context of these proficiency descriptions, does not necessarily imply formal higher education. However, in cultures where formal higher education is common, the language-use abilities of persons who have had such education is considered the standard. That is, such a person meets the contemporary expectations for the formal, careful style of the language, as well as a range of less formal varieties of the language.

Listening 0 (No Proficiency)

No practical understanding of the spoken language. Understanding is limited to occasional isolated words with eventually no ability to comprehend communication. (Has been coded L-0 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 00]

Listening 0+ (Memorized Proficiency)

Sufficient comprehension to understand a number of memorized utterances in areas of immediate needs. Slight increase in utterance length understood, but requires frequent long pauses between understood phrases and repeated requests on the listener's

part for repetition. Understands with reasonable accuracy only when this involves short memorized utterances or formulae. Utterances understood are relatively short in length. Misunderstandings arise due to ignoring or inaccurately hearing sounds or word endings (both inflectional and non-inflectional), distorting the original meaning. Can understand only with difficulty even such people as teachers who are used to speaking with non-native speakers. Can understand best those statement where context strongly supports the utterance's meaning. Gets some main ideas. (Has been coded L-0+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 06]

Listening 1 (Elementary Proficiency)

Sufficient comprehension to understand utterances about basic survival needs and minimum courtesy and travel requirements. In areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics, can understand simple questions and answers, simple statements and very simple face-to-face conversations in a standard dialect. These must often be delivered more clearly than normal, at a rate slower than normal, with frequent repetitions or paraphrases (that is, by a native used to dealing with foreigners). Once learned, these sentences can be varied for similar-level vocabulary and grammar and still be understood. In the majority of utterances, misunderstandings arise due to overlooked or misunderstood syntax and other grammatical clues. Comprehension vocabulary inadequate to understand anything but the most elementary needs. Strong interference from the candidate's native language occurs. Little precision in the information understood owing to the tentative state of passive grammar and lack of vocabulary. Comprehension areas include basic needs such as meals, lodging, transportation, time, and simple directions (including both route instructions and orders from customs officials, policemen, etc.). Understands main ideas. (Has been coded L-1 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 10]

Listening 1+ (Elementary Proficiency, Plus)

Sufficient comprehension to understand short conversations about all survival needs and limited social demands. Developing flexibility evident in understanding into a range of circumstances beyond immediate survival needs. Shows spontaneity in understanding by speed, although consistency of understanding uneven. Limited vocabulary range necessitates repetition for understanding. Understands more common time forms and most question forms, some word order patterns, but miscommunication still occurs with more complex patterns. Cannot sustain understanding of coherent structures in longer utterances or in unfamiliar situations. Understanding of descriptions and the giving of precise information is limited. Aware of basic cohesive structures, e.g., pronouns, verb inflections, but many are unreliably understood, especially if less immediate in reference. Understanding is largely limited to a series of short, discrete utterances. Still has to ask for utterances to be repeated. Some ability to understand facts. (Has been coded L-1+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 16]

Listening 2 (Limited Working Proficiency)

Sufficient comprehension to understand conversations on routine social demands and limited job requirements. Able to understand face-to-face speech in a standard dialect, delivered at a normal rate with some repetition and rewording, by a native speaker not used to dealing with foreigners, about everyday topics, common personal and family news, well-known current events, and routine office matters through descriptions and narration about current, past, and future events; can follow essential points of discussion or speech at an elementary level on topics in his/her special professional field. Only understands occasional words and phrases of statements made in unfavorable conditions, for example through loudspeakers outdoors. Understands factual content. Native language causes less interference in listening comprehension. Able to understand facts, i.e., the lines but not between or beyond the lines. (Has been coded L-2 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 20]

Listening 2+ (Limited Working Proficiency, Plus)

Sufficient comprehension to understand most routine social demands and most conversations on work requirements as well as some discussions on concrete topics related to particular interests and special fields of competence. Often shows remarkable ability and ease of understanding, but under tension or pressure may break down. Candidate may display weakness or deficiency due to inadequate vocabulary base or less than secure knowledge of grammar and syntax. Normally understands general vocabulary with some hesitant understanding of everyday vocabulary still evident. Can sometimes detect emotional overtones. Some ability to understand implications. (Has been coded L-2+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 28]

Listening 3 (General Professional Proficiency)

Able to understand the essentials of all speech in a standard dialect including technical discussions within a special field. Has effective understanding of face-to-face speech, delivered with normal clarity and speed in a standard dialect, on general topics and areas of special interest; understands hypothesizing and supported opinions. Has broad enough vocabulary that rarely has to ask for paraphrasing or explanation. Can follow accurately the essentials of conversations between educated native speakers, reasonably clear telephone calls, radio broadcasts, news stories similar to wire service reports, oral reports, some oral technical reports and public addresses on non-technical subjects; can understand without difficulty all forms of standard speech concerning a special professional field. Does not understand native speakers if they speak very quickly or use some slang or dialect. Can often detect emotional overtones. Can understand implications. (Has been coded L-3 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 30]

Listening 3+ (General Professional Proficiency, Plus)

Comprehends most of the content and intent of a variety of forms and styles of speech pertinent to professional needs, as well as general topics and social conversation. Ability to comprehend many sociolinguistic and cultural references. However, may miss some subtleties and nuances. Increased ability to comprehend unusually complex structures in lengthy utterances and to comprehend many distinctions in language tailored for different audiences. Increased ability to understand native speakers talking quickly, using nonstandard dialect or slang; however, comprehension not complete. Can discern some relationships among sophisticated listening materials in the context of broad experience. Can follow some unpredictable turns of thought readily in, for example, informal and formal speeches covering editorial, conjectural, and literary material in subject matter areas directed to the general listener. (Has been coded L-3+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 38]

Listening 4 (Advanced Professional Proficiency)

Able to understand all forms and styles of speech pertinent to professional needs. Able to understand fully all speech with extensive and precise vocabulary, subtleties and nuances in all standard dialects on any subject relevant to professional needs within the range of his/her experience, including social conversations; all intelligible broadcasts and telephone calls; and many kinds of technical discussions and discourse. Understands language specifically tailored (including persuasion, representation, counseling, and negotiating) to different audiences. Able to understand the essentials of speech in some non-standard dialects. Has difficulty understanding extreme dialect and slang, also in understanding speech in unfavorable conditions, for example through bad loudspeakers outdoors. Can discern relationships among sophisticated listening materials in the context of broad experience. Can follow unpredictable turns of thought readily in, for example, informal and formal speeches covering editorial, conjectural, and literary material in any subject matter directed to the general listener. (Has been coded L-4 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 40]

Listening 4+ (Advanced Professional Proficiency, Plus)

Increased ability to understand extremely difficult and abstract speech as well as ability to understand all forms and styles of speech pertinent to professional needs, including social conversations. Increased ability to comprehend native speakers using extreme nonstandard dialects and slang, as well as to understand speech in unfavorable conditions. Strong sensitivity to sociolinguistic and cultural references. Accuracy is close to that of the well-educated native listener but still not equivalent. (Has been coded L-4+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 46]

Listening 5 (Functionally Native Proficiency)

Comprehension equivalent to that of the well-educated native listener. Able to understand fully all forms and styles of speech intelligible to the well-educated native listener, including a number of regional and illiterate dialects, highly colloquial speech and conversations, and discourse distorted by marked interference from other noise. Able to understand how natives think as they create discourse. Able to understand extremely difficult and abstract speech. (Has been coded L-5 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 50]

Reading

Preface

The following proficiency level descriptions characterize comprehension of the written language. Each of the six "base levels" (coded 00, 10, 20, 30, 40, and 50) implies control of any previous "base levels" functions and accuracy. The "plus level" designation (coded 06, 16, 26, etc.) will be assigned when proficiency substantially exceeds one base skill level and does not fully meet the criteria for the next "base level." The "plus level" descriptions are therefore supplementary to the "base level" descriptions.

A skill level is assigned to a person through an authorized language examination. Examiners assign a level on a variety of performance criteria exemplified in the descriptive statements. Therefore, the examples given here illustrate, but do not exhaustively describe, either the skills a person may possess or situations in which he/she may function effectively.

Statements describing accuracy refer to typical stages in the development of competence in the most commonly taught languages in formal training programs. In other languages, emerging competence parallels these characterizations, but often with different details.

Unless otherwise specified, the term "native reader" refers to native readers of a standard dialect.

"Well-educated," in the context of these proficiency descriptions, does not necessarily imply formal higher education. However, in cultures where formal higher education is common, the language-use abilities of persons who have had such education is considered the standard. That is, such a person meets the contemporary expectations for the formal, careful style of the language, as well as a range of less formal varieties of the language.

In the following descriptions a standard set of text-types is associated with each level. The text-type is generally characterized in each descriptive statement.

The word "read," in the context of these proficiency descriptions, means that the person at a given skill level can thoroughly understand the communicative intent in the text-types described. In the usual case the reader could be expected to make a full representation, thorough summary, or translation of the text into English.

Other useful operations can be performed on written texts that do not require the ability to "read," as defined above. Examples of such tasks which people of a given skill

level may reasonably be expected to perform are provided, when appropriate, in the descriptions.

Reading 0 (No Proficiency)

No practical ability to read the language. Consistently misunderstands or cannot comprehend at all. (Has been coded R-0 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 00]

Reading 0+ (Memorized Proficiency)

Can recognize all the letters in the printed version of an alphabetic system and high-frequency elements of a syllabary or a character system. Able to read some or all of the following: numbers, isolated words and phrases, personal and place names, street signs, office and shop designations; the above often interpreted inaccurately. Unable to read connected prose. (Has been coded R-0+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 06]

Reading 1 (Elementary Proficiency)

Sufficient comprehension to read very simple connected written material in a form equivalent to usual printing or typescript. Can read either representations of familiar formulaic verbal exchanges or simple language containing only the highest-frequency structural patterns and vocabulary, including shared international vocabulary items and cognates (when appropriate). Able to read and understand known language elements that have been recombined in new ways to achieve different meanings at a similar level of simplicity. Texts may include simple narratives of routine behavior; highly predictable descriptions of people, places, or things; and explanations of geography and government such as those simplified for tourists. Some misunderstandings possible on simple texts. Can get some main ideas and locate prominent items of professional significance in more complex texts. Can identify general subject matter in some authentic texts. (Has been coded R-1 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 10]

Reading 1+ (Elementary Proficiency, Plus)

Sufficient comprehension to understand simple discourse in printed form for informative social purposes. Can read material such as announcements of public events, simple prose containing biographical information or narration of events, and straightforward newspaper headlines. Can guess at unfamiliar vocabulary if highly contextualized, but with difficulty in unfamiliar contexts. Can get some main ideas and locate routine information of professional significance in more complex texts. Can follow essential points of written discussion at an elementary level on topics in his/her special professional field.

In commonly taught languages, the individual may not control the structure well. For example, basic grammatical relations are often misinterpreted, and temporal references may rely primarily on lexical items as time indicators. Has some difficulty with the cohesive factors in discourse, such as matching pronouns with referents. May have to read materials several times for understanding. (Has been coded R-1+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 16]

Reading 2 (Limited Working Proficiency)

Sufficient comprehension to read simple, authentic written material in a form equivalent to usual printing or typescript on subjects within a familiar context. Able to read with some misunderstandings straightforward, familiar, factual material, but in general insufficiently experienced with the language to draw inferences directly from the linguistic aspects of the text. Can locate and understand the main ideas and details in material written for the general reader. However, persons who have professional knowledge of a subject may be able to summarize or perform sorting and locating tasks with written texts that are well beyond their general proficiency level. The individual can read uncomplicated, but authentic prose on familiar subjects that are normally presented in a predictable sequence which aids the reader in understanding. Texts may include descriptions and narrations in context such as news items describing frequently occurring events, simple biographical information, social notices, formulaic business letters, and simple technical material written for the general reader. Generally the prose that can be read by the individual is predominantly in straightforward, high-frequency sentence patterns. The individual does not have a broad active vocabulary (that is, which he/she recognizes immediately on sight), but is able to use contextual and real-world cues to understand the text. Characteristically, however, the individual is quite slow in performing such a process. He/she is typically able to answer factual questions about authentic texts of the types described above. (Has been coded R-2 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 20]

Reading 2+ (Limited Working Proficiency, Plus)

Sufficient comprehension to understand most factual material in non-technical prose as well as some discussions on concrete topics related to special professional interests. Is markedly more proficient at reading materials on a familiar topic. Is able to separate the main ideas and details from lesser ones and uses that distinction to advance understanding. The individual is able to use linguistic context and real-world knowledge to make sensible guesses about unfamiliar material. Has a broad active reading vocabulary. The individual is able to get the gist of main and subsidiary ideas in texts which could only be read thoroughly by persons with much higher proficiencies. Weaknesses include slowness, uncertainty, inability to discern nuance and/or intentionally disguised meaning. (Has been coded R-2+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 26]

Reading 3 (General Professional Proficiency)

Able to read within a normal range of speed and with almost complete comprehension a variety of authentic prose material on unfamiliar subjects. Reading ability is not dependent on subject matter knowledge, although it is not expected that the individual can comprehend thoroughly subject matter which is highly dependent on cultural knowledge or which is outside his/her general experience and not accompanied by explanation. Text-types include news stories similar to wire service reports or international news items in major periodicals; routine correspondence, general reports, and technical material in his/her professional field; all of these may include hypothesis, argumentation, and supported opinions. Misreading rare. Almost always able to interpret material correctly, relate ideas, and "read between the lines" (that is, understand the writer's implicit intents in texts of the above types). Can get the gist of more sophisticated texts, but may be unable to detect or understand subtlety and nuance. Rarely has to pause over or reread general vocabulary. However, may experience some difficulty with unusually complex structure and low-frequency idioms. (Has been coded R-3 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 30]

Reading 3+ (General Professional Proficiency, Plus)

Can comprehend a variety of styles and forms pertinent to professional needs. Rarely misinterprets such texts or rarely experiences difficulty relating ideas or making inferences. Able to comprehend many sociolinguistic and cultural references. However, may miss some nuances and subtleties. Able to comprehend a considerable range of intentionally complex structures, low-frequency idioms, and uncommon connotative intentions; however, accuracy is not complete. The individual is typically able to read with facility, understand, and appreciate contemporary expository, technical, or literary texts which do not rely heavily on slang and unusual idioms. (Has been coded R-3+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 36]

Reading 4 (Advanced Professional Proficiency)

Able to read fluently and accurately all styles and forms of the language pertinent to professional needs. The individual's experience with the written language is extensive enough that he/she is able to relate inferences in the text to real-world knowledge and understand almost all sociolinguistic and cultural references. Able to "read beyond the lines" (that is, to understand the full ramifications of texts as they are situated in the wider cultural, political, or social environment). Able to read and understand the intent of writers' use of nuance and subtlety. The individual can discern relationships among sophisticated written materials in the context of broad experience. Can follow unpredictable turns of thought readily in, for example, editorial, conjectural, and literary texts in any subject matter area directed to the general reader. Can read essentially all materials in his/

her special field, including official and professional documents and correspondence. Recognizes all professionally relevant vocabulary known to the educated non-professional native, although may have some difficulty with slang. Can read reasonably legible handwriting without difficulty. Accuracy is often nearly that of a well-educated native reader. (Has been coded R-4 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 40]

Reading 4+ (Advanced Professional Proficiency, Plus)

Nearly native ability to read and understand extremely difficult or abstract prose, a very wide variety of vocabulary, idioms, colloquialisms, and slang. Strong sensitivity to and understanding of sociolinguistic and cultural references. Little difficulty in reading less than fully legible handwriting. Broad ability to "read beyond the lines" (that is, to understand the full ramifications of texts as they are situated in the wider cultural, political, or social environment); is nearly that of a well-read or well-educated native reader. Accuracy is close to that of the well-educated native reader, but not equivalent. (Has been coded R-4+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 46]

Reading 5 (Functionally Native Proficiency)

Reading proficiency is functionally equivalent to that of the well-educated native reader. Can read extremely difficult or abstract prose, for example, general legal and technical as well as highly colloquial writings. Able to read literary texts, typically including contemporary, avant-garde prose, poetry, and theatrical writing. Can read classical/archaic forms of literature with the same degree of facility as the well-educated, but non-specialist native. Reads and understands a wide variety of vocabulary and idioms, colloquialisms, slang, and pertinent cultural references. With varying degrees of difficulty, can read all kinds of handwritten documents. Accuracy of comprehension equivalent to that of a well-educated native reader. (Has been coded R-5 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 50]

Writing

Preface

The following proficiency level descriptions characterize written language use. Each of the six "base levels" (coded 00, 10, 20, 30, 40, and 50) implies control of any previous "base levels" functions and accuracy. The "plus level" designation (coded 06, 16, 26, etc.) will be assigned when proficiency substantially exceeds one base skill level and does not fully meet the criteria for the next "base level." The "plus level" descriptions are therefore supplementary to the "base level" descriptions.

A skill level is assigned to a person through an authorized language examination. Examiners assign a level on a variety of performance criteria exemplified in the descriptive

statements. Therefore, the examples given here illustrate, but do not exhaustively describe, either the skills a person may possess or situations in which he/she may function effectively.

Statements describing accuracy refer to typical stages in the development of competence in the most commonly taught languages in formal training programs. In other languages, emerging competence parallels these characterizations, but often with different details.

Unless otherwise specified, the term "native writer" refers to native writers of a standard dialect.

"Well-educated," in the context of these proficiency descriptions, does not necessarily imply formal higher education. However, in cultures where formal higher education is common, the language-use abilities of persons who have had such education is considered the standard. That is, such a person meets the contemporary expectations for the formal, careful style of the language, as well as a range of less formal varieties of the language.

Writing 0 (No Proficiency)

No functional writing ability. (Has been coded W-0 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 00]

Writing 0+ (Memorized Proficiency)

Writes using memorized material and set expressions. Can produce symbols in an alphabetic or syllabic writing system or 50 of the most common characters. Can write numbers and dates, own name, nationality, address, etc., such as on a hotel registration form. Otherwise, ability to write is limited to simple lists of common items such as a few short sentences. Spelling and even representation of symbols (letters, syllables, characters) may be incorrect. (Has been coded W-0+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 06]

Writing 1 (Elementary Proficiency)

Has sufficient control of the writing system to meet limited practical needs. Can create by writing statements and questions on topics very familiar to him/her within the scope of his/her limited language experience. Writing vocabulary is inadequate to express anything but elementary needs; writes in simple sentences making continual errors in spelling, grammar, and punctuation but writing can be read and understood by a native reader used to dealing with foreigners attempting to write his/her language. Writing tends to be a loose collection of sentences (or fragments) on a given topic and provides little evidence of conscious organization. While topics which are "very familiar" and elementary needs vary considerably from individual to individual, any person at this level should be able to write simple phone messages, excuses, notes to service people, and simple notes

to friends. (800–1000 characters controlled.) (Has been coded W-1 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 10]

Writing 1+ (Elementary Proficiency, Plus)

Sufficient control of writing system to meet most survival needs and limited social demands. Can create sentences and short paragraphs related to most survival needs (food, lodging, transportation, immediate surroundings and situations) and limited social demands. Can express fairly accurate present and future time. Can produce some past verb forms but not always accurately or with correct usage. Can relate personal history, discuss topics such as daily life, preferences, and very familiar material. Shows good control of elementary vocabulary and some control of basic syntactic patterns but major errors still occur when expressing more complex thoughts. Dictionary usage may still yield incorrect vocabulary or forms, although the individual can use a dictionary to advantage to express simple ideas. Generally cannot use basic cohesive elements of discourse to advantage (such as relative constructions, object pronouns, connectors, etc.). Can take notes in some detail on familiar topics, and respond to personal questions using elementary vocabulary and common structures. Can write simple letters, summaries of biographical data, and work experience with fair accuracy. Writing, though faulty, is comprehensible to native speakers used to dealing with foreigners. (Has been coded W-1+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 18]

Writing 2 (Limited Working Proficiency)

Able to write routine social correspondence and prepare documentary materials required for most limited work requirements. Has writing vocabulary sufficient to express himself/herself simply with some circumlocutions. Can write simply about a very limited number of current events or daily situations. Still makes common errors in spelling and punctuation but shows some control of the most common formats and punctuation conventions. Good control of morphology of language (in inflected languages) and of the most frequently used syntactic structures. Elementary constructions are usually handled quite accurately and writing is understandable to a native reader not used to reading the writing of foreigners. Uses a limited number of cohesive devices. (Has been coded W-2 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 20]

Writing 2+ (Limited Working Proficiency, Plus)

Shows ability to write with some precision and in some detail about most topics. Can write about concrete topics relating to particular interests and special fields of competence. Often shows surprising fluency and ease of expression but under time constraints and pressure language may be inaccurate and/or incomprehensible. Generally strong in either grammar or vocabulary but not in both. Weaknesses or unevenness in one of the foregoing

or in spelling result in occasional miscommunication. Areas of weakness range from simple constructions such as plurals, articles, prepositions, and negatives to more complex structures such as tense usage, passive constructions, word order, and relative clauses. Normally controls general vocabulary with some misuse of everyday vocabulary evident. Shows a limited ability to use circumlocutions. Uses dictionary to advantage to supply unknown words. Can take fairly accurate notes on material presented orally and handle with fair accuracy most social correspondence. Writing is understandable to native speakers not used to dealing with foreigners' attempts to write the language, though style is still obviously foreign. (Has been coded W-2+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 28]

Writing 3 (General Professional Proficiency)

Able to use the language effectively in most formal and informal written exchanges on practical, social, and professional topics. Can write reports, summaries, short library research papers on current events, on particular areas of interest, or on special fields with reasonable ease. Control of structure, spelling, and general vocabulary is adequate to convey his/her message accurately but style may be obviously foreign. Errors virtually never interfere with comprehension and rarely disturb the native reader. Punctuation generally controlled. Employs a full range of structures. Control of grammar good with only sporadic errors in basic structures, occasional errors in the most complex frequent structures, and somewhat more frequent errors in low-frequency complex structures. Consistent control of compound and complex sentences. Relationship of ideas is consistently clear. (Has been coded W-3 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 30]

Writing 3+ (General Professional Proficiency, Plus)

Able to write the language in a few prose styles pertinent to professional/educational needs. Not always able to tailor language to suit audience. Weaknesses may lie in poor control of low-frequency complex structures, vocabulary, or the ability to express subtleties and nuances. May be able to write on some topics pertinent to professional/educational needs. Organization may suffer due to a lack of variety in organizational patterns or in variety of cohesive devices. (Has been coded W-3+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 36]

Writing 4 (Advanced Professional Proficiency)

Able to write the language precisely and accurately in a variety of prose styles pertinent to professional/educational needs. Errors of grammar are rare including those in low-frequency complex structures. Consistently able to tailor language to suit audience and able to express subtleties and nuances. Expository prose is clearly, consistently, and explicitly organized. The writer employs a variety of organizational patterns,

uses a wide variety of cohesive devices such as ellipsis and parallelisms, and subordinates in a variety of ways. Able to write on all topics normally pertinent to professional/educational needs and on social issues of a general nature. Writing adequate to express all his/her experiences. (Has been coded W-4 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 40]

Writing 4+ (Advanced Professional Proficiency, Plus)

Able to write the language precisely and accurately in a wide variety of prose styles pertinent to professional/educational needs. May have some ability to edit but not in the full range of styles. Has some flexibility within a style and shows some evidence of a use of stylistic devices. (Has been coded W-4+ in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 46]

Writing 5 (Functionally Native Proficiency)

Has writing proficiency equal to that of a well-educated native. Without non-native errors of structure, spelling, style, or vocabulary can write and edit both formal and informal correspondence, official reports and documents, and professional/educational articles including writing for special purposes which might include legal, technical, educational, literary, and colloquial writing. In addition to being clear, explicit, and informative, the writing and the ideas are also imaginative. The writer employs a very wide range of stylistic devices. (Has been coded W-5 in some nonautomated applications.) [Data Code 50]

July 1985

These descriptions were approved by the Interagency Language Roundtable, consisting of the following agencies:

Department of Defense
Department of State
Central Intelligence Agency
National Security Agency
Department of the Interior
National Institutes of Health
National Science Foundation
Department of Agriculture
Drug Enforcement Administration
Federal Bureau of Investigation
ACTION/Peace Corps
Agency for International Development
Office of Personnel Management
Immigration and Naturalization Service
Department of Education
U.S. Customs Service
U.S. Information Agency
Library of Congress

Appendix C: Government vs. ACTFL Rating Scales

Government (FSI) Scale	*Academic (ACTFL/ETS) Scale*	*Definition*
5	Native	Able to speak like an educated native speaker
4+	Superior	Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations
4		
3+		
3		
2+	Advanced Plus	Able to satisfy most work requirements and show some ability to communicate on concrete topics
2	Advanced	Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements
1+	Intermediate High	Able to satisfy most survival needs and some limited social demands
1	Intermediate Mid	Able to satisfy some survival needs and some limited social demands
	Intermediate Low	Able to satisfy basic survival needs and minimum courtesy requirements
0+	Novice High	Able to satisfy immediate needs with learned utterances
0	Novice Mid	Able to operate in only a very limited capacity
	Novice Low	Unable to function in the spoken language
	0	No ability whatsoever in the language

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